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LABORATORY DEVELOPMENT OF A SATELLITE EXPERIMENT FOR GAS-SURFACE INTERACTION STUDIES

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16. ABSTRACT

During 1966 and 1967 under research contract with the George C. Marshall Space Flight Center (Contract NAS8-21096), the Molecular Beam Laboratory and the Space Physics Research Laboratory of the University of Michigan defined an experimental concept for making quantitative measurements of important physical properties of gas-surface interactions.

The objective of this study has been to develop a technique and associated flight hardware for measuring the velocity distribution of molecules in a rarefied gas; the resulting experiment package is to be used for the measurements of gas-surface interaction phenomena in situ in the earth's atmosphere.

The metastable time-of-flight system described in this report has been prepared to achieve this objective. Specifically, it has been demonstrated that (a) the velocity distributions of metastable atoms produced by electron impact can be measured with a time-of-flight analyzer, and (b) these distributions can be related to the incident gas flux through kinematic considerations. In addition, breadboard electronics for data analysis in flight experiments has been successfully tested in the laboratory. Thus, the basis for the measurement has been established.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF PRESENT RESEARCH

During 1966 and 1967 under research contract with the George C. Marshall Space Flight Center (Contract NAS8-21096) the Molecular Beam Laboratory and the Space Physics Research Laboratory of the University of Michigan defined an experimental concept for making quantitative measurements of important physical properties of gas-surface interactions. This research pointed the way to the definition of a feasible satellite experiment to make gas surface interaction measurements in situ in the earth's atmosphere. The final report of this research served as a basis for a proposal for additional effort to further study the suggested technique and to move toward the final design of a satellite experiment. This additional research was funded under Contract NAS8-21450, and the results are reported herein.

Essentially all of the planned objectives of this latter study were realized. Operation of the experiment in the laboratory has successfully demonstrated the collimation technique and has shown conclusively that the velocity distribution in a metastable beam can be accurately measured. A flight-type electron gun assembly and a breadboard data processing sub-system were designed, constructed and tested.

The essential features of a flight experiment are now understood. The current status of the experiment is summarized in the closing section of this report, and a program for flight application is suggested.

1.2 PROPOSED EXPERIMENTAL CONFIGURATION

1.2.1 General Description

The objective of the proposed experiment is to explore the interactions of nitrogen molecules with surfaces under conditions of relative velocity and general environment found on an earth satellite. The velocity of the N_2 molecules relative to the satellite before impact is relatively uniform and is on the order of 10^6 cm/sec; their velocity distribution after scattering from test surfaces is to be measured. For the experiments as currently conceived, the maximum altitude at which useful measurements can be performed (≈ 350 km) is reached when the reflected flux of N_2 is too weak to be detected, while the lowest operational altitude (about 100 km) is that at which the mean free path of slow molecules within the instrument is appreciably less that the characteristic dimensions of the detector.

The general features of the experiment are shown in Figure 1.1. An enclosed analyzer is used to measure the angular distribution and velocity distribution of the nitrogen flux which is reflected from a target surface. Molecules strike the target surface at an angle determined by the attitude of the satellite with respect to its velocity vector. Those molecules which are reflected from the surface within a narrow range of angles enter the time-of-flight analyzer; the readout from the analyzer enables one to deduce the velocity distribution of the reflected molecules. Noteworthy features of the proposed experiment are that no moving parts are employed other than the target surface indexer, and that target surfaces are

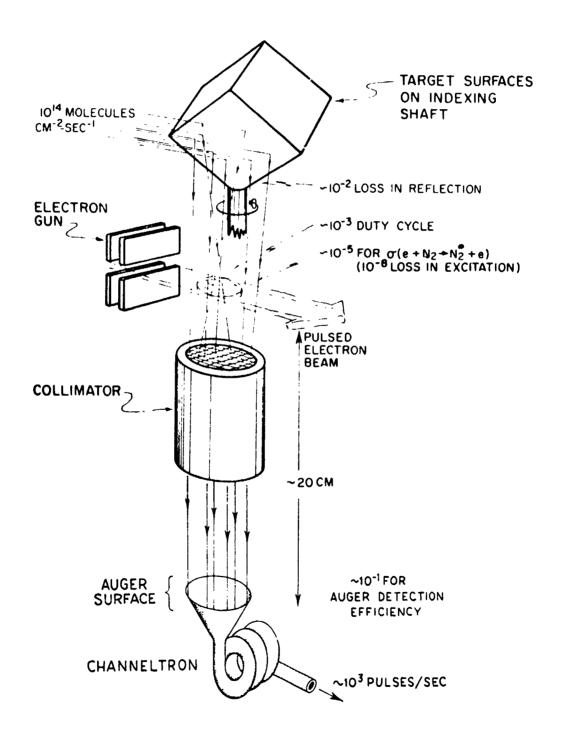


Figure 1.1 N_2 time-of-flight analyzer operation.

directly exposed to the space environment.

1.2.2 Measurement of Velocity Distributions in Neutral Gases

The velocity distribution of a beam of ions inside an apparatus is governed more by electric fields within the enclosure than by the velocities of the incoming neutral molecules. This suggests that velocity analysis on the reflected flux should be done on the molecules while they are electrically neutral. One possible way of performing such an analysis would be to use a rotating mechanical velocity filter. However, the maximum molecular velocity for which these filters can operate is less than 10⁶ cm/sec and in addition, the requirement of operating the filter at high rotational velocities makes it unsuitable for flight experiments. Consequently, we propose to use a periodically pulsed electron beam to create a spatially concentrated group of neutral, metastable N_2 molecules; the time of flight of these metastables over a 20 cm path in the apparatus will be observed. Since the metastable molecules are neutral, the detector output will provide an accurate measure of the velocity distribution of the reflected neutral flux. No moving mechanical parts are involved, and electron guns which give short pulses can be constructed with ease, so the system is well suited for analysis of very fast molecular beams.

The operation of the N₂ TOF analyzer is most easily described with reference to Figure 1.1. The molecules enter the analyzer after reflection from a target as shown in the figure. The molecules pass into a pulsed electron gun where some of them

are excited to their metastable state. If a metastable molecule passes through the collimator (an array of parallel tubes) without collision, it will arrive in its excited state at the cathode of a windowless electron multiplier. Lere the deexcitation of the metastable molecule causes the ejection of an electron (Kaminsky, 1965), giving an output pulse. The output of the multiplier is therefore a series of pulses at a rate proportional to the flux of metastable molecules through the analyzer.

The use of a cluster of TOF analyzers to measure reflected N_2 at five different angles is shown in Figure 1.2. Note that one electron gun serves for all five units. The pulse of electrons which excites the metastable N_2 will also excite optical levels of the molecules; photons from the decay of these short-lived levels will arrive at the Auger surface within nanoseconds of the electron pulse time, and the detector signal which comes from these photons can be used to calibrate the zero-time of the TOF analyzer.

1.2.3 Rejection of Background N2

The metastable time-of-flight analyzer is well adapted to discriminating against background molecules because it measures both the direction and the speed of the incoming particles. As discussed more fully in Section 4 of this report, by collimating the metastable beam the instrument registers only molecules which enter the electron bombardment region with their momenta in a direction nearly parallel to the collimator axis. Consequently, by orienting the collimator to face the target surface under investigation, essentially all metastable molecules which strike the Auger detector will

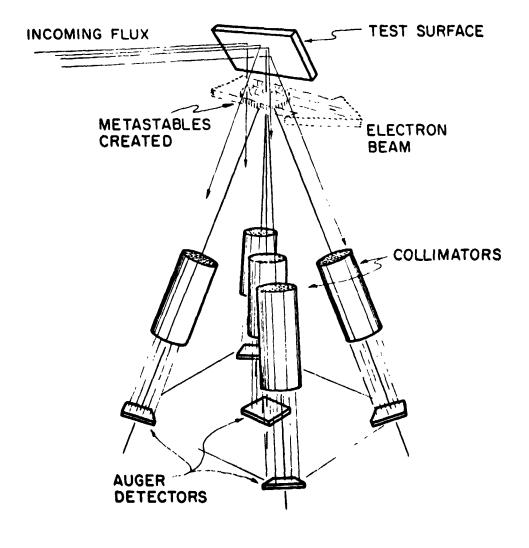


Figure 1.2 Analyzer cluster for angular distribution measurements of reflected metastable $\rm N_2$.

have come from that surface.

Because the electron excitation process produces only a small change in the velocity of the incoming molecules, the TOF analysis accurately measures the distribution of speeds of the particles arriving from the target surface. As a result, the high speed (>5 x 10 4 cm/sec) component of the reflected flux should be relatively free of background because the molecules which strike the target after previous collisions with the instrument will be very nearly thermalized and therefore contribute only to the low speed portion of the data.

2. EFFECT OF RECOIL ON THE VELOCITY DISTRIBUTION OF METASTABLE MOLECULES PRODUCED BY ELECTRON IMPACT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the object of the satellite experiment is to investigate gas-surface interactions, it is necessary to know accurately the velocity distributions in both the incident and reflected gas beams. Thus, it is imperative to understand any systematic effects introduced by the MTOF analyzer itself.

The effects of using an electron pulse of finite duration, of a finite electron-gas beam interaction region, and of velocity dependent scattering from the beam (see Appendix II) have been discussed in an earlier report on this experiment (Zorn and Pearl, 1967). The effect of a finite lifetime of a metastable state is investigated in Section 3 of the present study. The principal remaining systematic effect, the influence of recoil from electron impact on the velocity distribution, is discussed in this section (see also Pearl, et al., 1969).

In order to investigate recoil effects experimentally, a collimated beam of helium gas was directed into a laboratory version of the MTOF analyzer. Helium was chosen as the test gas because its low mass and large excitation energy lead to highly exaggerated distortions of the metastable velocity distribution; a situation in which recoil effects are large was desired in order to facilitate comparison between theory and experiment.

Geometrical parameters for the present experiment are indicated in Figure 2.1. Time-of-flight spectra were taken at various electron energies and outgoing beam angles; the incoming

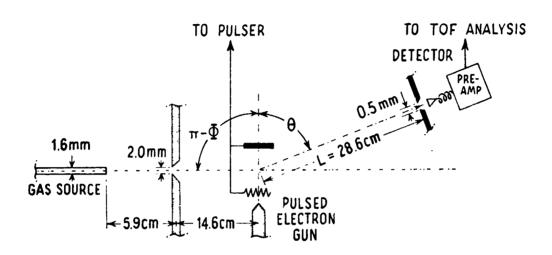


Figure 2.1 Experimental arrangement for time-of-flight measurements.

beam, nominally perpendicular to the electron beam ($\phi \approx 90^{\circ}$; see Figure 2.1), has an angular divergence of about three degrees. Samples of data taken at two different angles θ are plotted as points in Figure 2.2. Striking features of the results when compared with what would be found if recoil effects were negligible (curve \underline{c} in Figure 2.2) include:

- 1. The narrowness of the distributions.
- 2. The presence of two peaks.
- The sensitivity of the position of the distribution to the angle of deflection.

Simple kinematic considerations (Warnock and Bernstein, 1968) can be used to explain these velocity distributions.

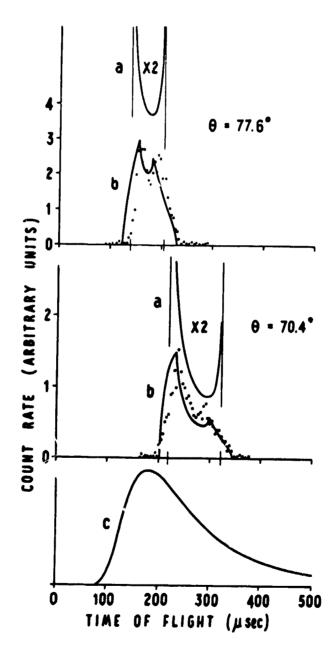


Figure 2.2 Time-of-flight spectra for metastable 2³S₁ helium. Points represent experimental data. Curves a are theoretical for perfect collimation (vertical lines indicate cutoffs); curves b are theoretical, accounting for 3° angular divergence in the incoming, ground state beam. Curves a and b are calculated assuming that the electron energy is 0.75 eV above threshold. Curve c is theoretical if recoil effects are neglected.

2.2 THEORETICAL

For an idealized experiment in which the electron gun is operated in either an instantaneous pulse or DC mode, the distribution function $g(\overline{v})$ of metastable atoms is related to the distribution function $f(\overline{v}_{O})$ of the ground state atoms by

$$g(\overline{v}) = \frac{j}{e} \sigma \int d^3v_o f(\overline{v}_o) p(\overline{v}_o, \overline{w})$$
 (1)

where j is the electron current density at the point of interaction, e is the electronic charge, σ is the total metastable excitation cross section (assumed independent of \overline{v}_{o}), and $p(\overline{v}_{o},\overline{w})$ is the probability density that a metastable produced from a ground state atom having initial velocity \overline{v}_{o} will have velocity \overline{w} in the center of mass frame of the electron and the atom; the normalized differential excitation cross section is included in $p(\overline{v}_{o},\overline{w})$. The variables \overline{v} , \overline{v}_{o} and \overline{w} are related through conservation laws.

For s-wave scattering, the law of conservation of energy shows that $p(\overset{-}{v_0},\overset{-}{w})$ may be well approximated by

$$p(\overline{V}_{O}, \overline{W}) = \frac{1}{4\pi V^2} \delta(W-V)$$
 (2)

where V is the recoil speed of the metastable in the center of mass system:

$$V = \mu \sqrt{\frac{2\Delta E}{m}}$$
 (3)

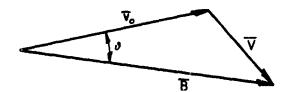


Figure 2.3 Diagram showing relation of vector variables.

Here ΔE is the electron's excess energy above the excitation threshold*, μ is the electron-atom mass ratio, and m is the mass of the electron.

From the law of conservation of momentum, we may define a vector \overline{B} (Figure 2.3) which is constant for a given laboratory velocity \overline{v} of the metastable

$$\overline{B} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \overline{v} - \mu \overline{u}_{O} = \overline{v}_{O} + \overline{V}$$
 (4)

Here \overline{u}_{o} is the incident velocity of the electron. From this one may write

$$v^2 = B^2 + v^2_0 - 2\overline{B} \cdot \overline{v}_0$$
 (5)

Converting the delta function from \mathbf{w} (center of mass system) to \mathbf{v}_{o} (laboratory system) variables, we have

$$\delta(w-V) = \frac{\delta(v_0 - v_0^+) + \delta(v_0 - v_0^-)}{|\hat{v}_0.\hat{v}|}$$
 (6)

^{*} Terms on the order of the electron-at m mass ratio and of the order of the atom-electron speed rat. > are neglected with respect to unity throughout.

where the carats indicate unit vectors, and

$$v_{O}^{\pm} = B \cos \vartheta \pm \sqrt{V^2 - B^2 \sin^2 \vartheta}$$
 (7)

Suppose now that the ground state beam is produced from a Maxwellian gas. Then

$$f(v_0) = \frac{n_0}{\pi^{3/2}\alpha^3} \exp[-v_0^2/\alpha^2]$$
 (8)

so that Equation 1 may be rewritten in the form

$$g(\overline{v}) = \frac{j}{e}\sigma \cdot \frac{n_o}{\pi^{\frac{3}{2}}\alpha^3} \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi V^2} \int_{\Omega_o} d\omega_o \frac{v_o^{+2} \exp[-v_o^{+2}/\alpha^2] + v_o^{-2} \exp[-v_o^{-2}/\alpha^2]}{|\hat{v}_o \cdot \hat{v}|} (9)$$

where $\Omega_{_{\rm O}}$ is the solid angle defined by the intersection of the ground state beam and the sphere of integration in ${\rm v}_{_{\rm O}}$ space, which is determined by the conservation laws (see Equation 6 and Figure 2.4).

2.2.1 Collimated Beams

If the ground state beam is perfectly collimated, the integral in Equation 9 degenerates, and the distribution function of metastable atoms is given by the integrand. Curves a of Figure 2.2 show predicted time-of-flight curves for a perfectly collimated ground state beam, using the parameters indicated in Figure 2.1 (the time-of-flight distribution, h(t), is related to the distribution function by

$$h(t) \propto \frac{x^3}{t^4}g(\frac{x}{t}) \tag{10}$$

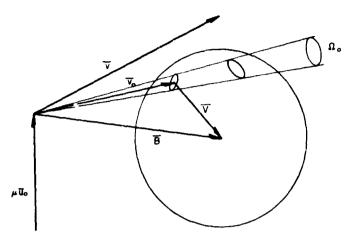


Figure 2.4 Velocity space diagram showing contributing portion of the sphere of possible values of \overline{v}_0 for a ground state beam of sclid angle Ω_0 .

where x is the distance from the excitation region to the point of observation).

The sharp cutoffs and the accompanying singularities arise from the vanishing of the denominator in the distribution. Their physical origin can be seen from Figure 2.4 and from the definition of the vector \overline{B} (Equation 4). The tip of \overline{B} , which defines the center of the "contributing" sphere, moves parallel to \hat{v} as the magnitude of \overline{v} increases. Metastables are only observed in the velocity range for which the ideal ground state beam intersects the contributing sphere; hence the existence of cutoffs. The maxima in the distribution occur when the beam is tangent to the sphere, i.e., when $\overline{v}_{o} \cdot \overline{V} = 0$, since surface elements on this part of the sphere contribute most efficiently to the resultant distribution.

The cutoff velocities can be calculated in a straightforward manner. For the special case of the present experiment (detector coplanar with the incident beams) the limiting velocities are given by

$$v_{\max} = [\mu u_{o} \sin \Phi \pm V] \csc (\Phi - \Theta) \begin{cases} \Theta < \Phi \\ V < \mu u_{o} \sin \Phi \end{cases}$$
 (11)

The cosecant term explains the strong shift of the distribution with relatively small angular changes (see Figure 2.2).

The cosecant dependence of the cutoffs on Φ (or Θ) also indicates that the simple integrand approximation to the distribution is inaccurate if the beam divergence (or detector width) is any greater than about a degree. Numerical integrations for the conditions of the present experiment (beam divergence $\Delta\Phi\approx3^\circ$; detector width negligible, $\Delta\Theta\approx0^\circ8^\circ$) are shown as curves \underline{b} in Figure 2.2.

The principal effects of finite beam divergence are seen to be:

- i) a widening of the distribution;
- ii) a narrowing of the peak separation;
- iii) a tendency for the peaks and valley of the distribution
 to "average out."

As the beam divergence increases, these effects eventually lead to a distribution with a single peak. Indeed, applying a 6° divergence to a hot hydrogen beam closely reproduces the measured velocity distribution approximated analytically by $v^4 \exp[-v^2/\alpha^2]$ in the work of Shyn et al., (1969).

2.2.2 Diffuse Sources

In the limit of a completely uncollimated ground state beam, where the gas enters the electron beam uniformly from all directions, Equation 9 can be integrated analytically.

The resulting distribution function is

$$g(\overline{v}) = \frac{j}{e} \sigma \frac{n_0}{\pi^{3/2} \alpha^3} \exp\left[-\frac{B^2 + V^2}{\alpha^2}\right] \frac{\sinh\frac{2BV}{\alpha^2}}{\frac{2BV}{\alpha^2}}$$
(12)

This expression reduces to a Maxwellian distribution only when the following conditions hold simultaneously:

- the energy E of the incident electron is equal to the excitation energy of the metastable state;
- ii) $\theta = 90^{\circ}$.

The behavior of a metastable helium (2^3S_1) velocity distribution for electrons having threshold energy is illustrated in Figure 2.5, the curves having been normalized to identical peak values. As the angle of observation θ shifts from zero to 180° , it is seen that the distribution shifts from "wide and fast," through Maxwellian, to "narrow and slow." Figures 2.6 and 2.7 show, respectively, the behavior of the peak intensity and position of the distribution given by Equation 12.

Although the approximation of s-wave scattering is known to be poor for helium (Ehrhardt and Willmann, 1967; Ehrhardt et al., 1968) the above calculation is useful since it provides a meaningful limiting case. Another interesting extreme case is that of perfect forward scattering of the electrons. In this case the distribution becomes

$$g(\overline{v}) = \frac{j}{e} \sigma \frac{n_0}{\pi^{3/2} \alpha^3} \exp[-D^2/\alpha^2] \qquad (E \to \infty) \qquad (13)$$

where

$$\overline{D} = \overline{V} - (\mu u_O - V) \hat{u}_O$$
 (14)

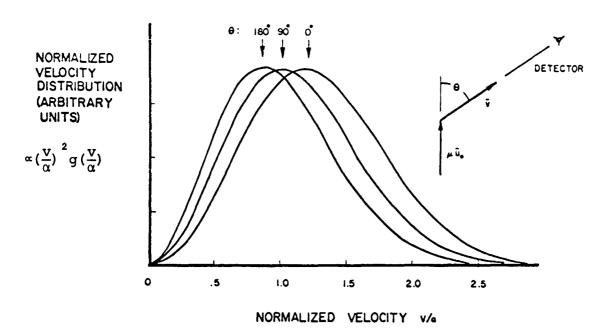


Figure 2.5 Velocity distributions for 2³S helium at various detector positions. Arrows indicate peak positions. Incident electrons assumed to have threshold energy. Source gas assumed to have (diffuse) Maxwellian velocity distribution.

In this limit (large electron energy) V approaches μu_O , so that the distribution approaches Maxwellian everywhere. It is therefore concluded that the distribution function in beams of metastable atoms produced by electron impact from Maxwellian ground state sources should vary between the two-peaked predictions of the integrand of Equation 9 and the isotropic Maxwellian case of Equation 13.

2.3 EFFECTS OF DIFFERENT EXCITATION ENERGIES and/or MOLECULAR MASSES

Figures 2.2, 2.5, 2.6 and 2.7 demonstrate properties of the

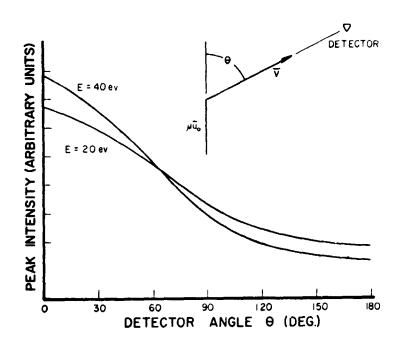


Figure 2.6 Peak intensity for 2^3S helium velocity distribution vs. angular position θ of detector; energy E of incident electrons is parameter. Source gas assumed to have (diffuse) Maxwellian velocity distribution.

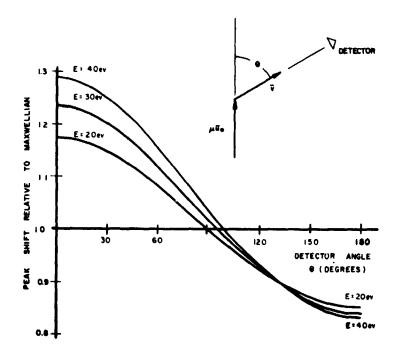


Figure 2.7 Peak shift for 2^3 S helium velocity distribution vs. angular position θ of detector; energy E of incident electrons is parameter. Source gas assumed to have (diffuse) Maxwellian velocity distribution. Shift evaluated relative to velocity peak of source gas (v_{peak} , source = α ; $\alpha = \sqrt{2kT/M}$).

velocity distribution for 2^3S_1 helium. The effects of using different gases or of exciting different states have not been indicated. An informative means for comparing such effects is the following.

Curve \underline{c} of Figure 2.2 would represent the expected time-of-flight spectrum for $2^3 \dot{s}_1$ helium if recoil effects were totally absent; the spectrum is characteristic only of the thermal distribution of velocities in the ground state gas. Therefore, if the time axis is properly scaled using the most probable velocity of particles in the gas, the resulting curve may be considered universal, i.e., valid for all gases. Curves \underline{a} of Figure 2.2, however, do not acquire a similar universal character, since they are strongly dependent on recoil effects. As a consequence of this, useful information on the degree to which beams of metastables produced from various gases are distorted by recoil can be obtained by determining the conditions which produce the illustrated "shifts" of curves a relative to the universal curve \underline{c} .

Curves a are characterized by their cutoffs. Let the cutoff velocities be normalized with respect to the most probable velocity in the ground state gas. For the given shifts in helium, it is now possible to determine the angles and energy excesses which will produce identical relative shifts with respect to curve \underline{c} for gases of arbitrary mass and excitation energy. Set $\Phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$ in order to correspond with the helium experiment. In addition, consider the source gases to have a fixed temperature (T = 300°K for the helium results). Then, for a given relative position of an a-type spectrum,

i.e., for fixed v_{max}/α and v_{min}/α , the cutoff relations (Equation 11) can be inverted to give

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E^*} = const. = \frac{(\Delta v)^2}{(\Sigma v)^2 - (\Delta v)^2}$$
 (15)

and

$$\sqrt{\frac{M}{E}} \cdot \sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - \Theta) = \text{const.} = \frac{2}{\Sigma v} \sqrt{\frac{m}{kT}}$$
 (16)

where

$$\sum v \triangleq \frac{v_{\text{max}}^{+v_{\text{min}}}}{\alpha}$$

$$\Delta v \triangleq \frac{v_{\text{max}}^{-v_{\text{min}}}}{\alpha}$$
(17)

and E is the energy of the incident electron. Equation 15 says that, for states of a fixed excitation energy E*, a fixed energy excess ΔE will produce a spectrum with the same "shift" relative to curve c regardless of the mass of the atom or molecule. Note, however, that Equation 16 states that the angle at which such a spectrum is observed does depend on the mass of the excited particle.

Calculated deflection angles and energy excesses for various gases are shown in Table 2.I. As expected, these results show that the deflection of the metastable beam is much less for N_2 than for helium. This distortion will decrease further as the mean velocity of the ground state beam is increased.

Finally, it should be noted that if the energy of the incident

electrons is sufficient to excite states which may <u>decay</u> to a metastable level, the resulting velocity distribution will be a weighted sum of distributions due to all such levels; kinematically, these levels must be treated in exactly the same manner as the metastable levels themselves (using the relevant excitation energy), since the recoil from the cascade photon is negligible.

State		Excitation Energy E*(eV)	Deflection $(\frac{\pi}{2} - \Theta)_{fast}$	•	Energy Excess AE(eV)
$\text{He}(2^3\text{S}_1)$	4	19.82	12.4°	19.6°	0.75
$H_2(c^3\pi_u)$	2	11.86	13.6°	21.5°	0.45
$D_2(\sigma^3\pi_u)$	4	11.86	9.6°	15.0°	0.45
$N_2(A^3\Sigma_u^+)$	28	6.16	2.6°	4.1°	0.23
$N_2(a^1\pi_g)$	28	8.54	3.1°	4.8°	0.32
$N_2(E^3\Sigma_g^+)$	28	11.87	3.6°	5.6°	0.45

Table 2.I Observation (deflection) angles and energy excesses which lead to the same relative structure in the time-of-flight spectra as indicated for helium by curves a and c in Figure 2.2.

2.4 CONCLUSIONS

The results of this section show that the effects of recoil on the velocity distribution of the metastable molecules are understood. Inverting the measured distributions to obtain the ground state velocity distribution requires an

analysis very similar to the above. Since the form of the distributions expected from the satellite experiment is unknown, this inversion will have to be carried out numerically.

3. EFFECTS OF SHORT-LIVED METASTABLE STATES ON THE INTERPRETATION OF VELOCITY DISTRIBUTIONS IN $\rm N_2$ BEAMS.

If the excited state of a molecule used in MTOF studies has a very long lifetime relative to the time it takes to drift from the electron gun to the detector, then the metastable beam can be described in terms of geometric and kinematic effects (Section 2). If, however, the lifetime of the state is so short that a significant fraction of the metastables decay in transit to the letector, then the observed distribution will be deficient in the more slowly moving excited molecules. Thus, a knowledge of the lifetime of the metastable state is necessary in order to correctly deduce the velocity distribution in the parent beam.

3.1 APPARATUS AND METHOD

The apparatus shown in Figure 3.1 is set up to measure the lifetime of the $a^1\tau_g$ metastable state of molecular nitrogen. The setup is similar to those used in the other time-of-flight experiments discussed in this report, except that the detector is mounted on a carriage, enabling it to be translated along the axis of the beam. The velocity selector shown in the figure is to be used in refinements of the present experiments; it was withdrawn from the beam path and was not used to obtain any of the data presented here.

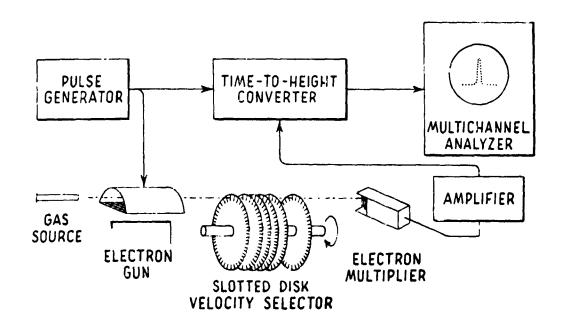


Fig. 3.1 Experimental arrangement for lifetime measurements.

Two types of experiments were conducted, both of which can be used in principle to determine metastable lifetimes. The first uses the time-of-flight technique; the second uses the drop in total metastable signal with electron gundetector distance.

3.1.1 The Time-of-Flight Method

In using the time-of-flight technique, molecular nitrogen is excited by pulsed electron bombardment (pulses typically-30v emplitude, 30 psec duration), and the time-of-flight distribution is measured at a fixed detector position (about 36 cm from the electron gun). The deviation from the distribution obtained when no decay occurs is then a measure of the lifetimes of the various short-lived metastable states.

The time-of-flight distribution expected in the absence of metastable decay can, in principle, be calculated by the methods outlined in Section 2. However, since the exact spatial distribution of the ground state gas in the electron gun is unknown in this experiment, the TOF distribution for a nondecaying beam is obtained experimentally using argon as the source gas.

The metastable states in argon are very long lived (Muschlitz, 1968), so that negligible decay of metastables occurs between the electron gun and the collector. A measured time-of-flight spectrum for metastable argon is shown in Figure 3.2. It was found empirically that this distribution can be closely fitted by an expression of the form

$$h_{Ar}(t) \propto \frac{x^{n+1}}{t^{n+2}} \exp \left[-\frac{x^2}{\alpha_{Ar}^2 t^2}\right]$$

where α_{Ar} is the most probable speed in the ground state argon gas; the exponent n, determined by fitting the data, is found to be equal to three within experimental error. The solid curve in the figure represents this distribution.

This same functional form for the TOF distribution, modified by the inclusion of decay terms (Freund and Klemperer, 1967; Zorn and Pearl, 1967), is next applied to the nitrogen data:

$$h_{N_2}(t) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{t^{n+2}} \exp \left[-\frac{x^2}{\alpha_{N_2}^2 t^2}\right] \left\{ N_a \exp\left[-\frac{t}{\tau_a}\right] + N_A \exp\left[-\frac{t}{\tau_A}\right] \right\}$$

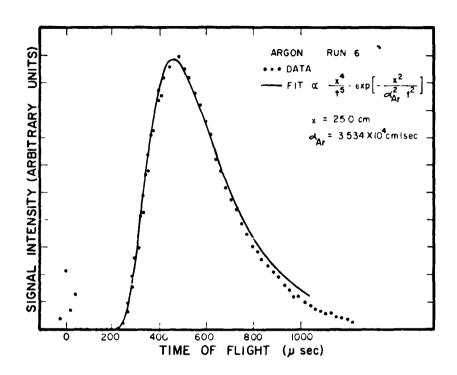


Figure 3.2 Measured time-of-flight spectrum for metastable argon and fitted curve.

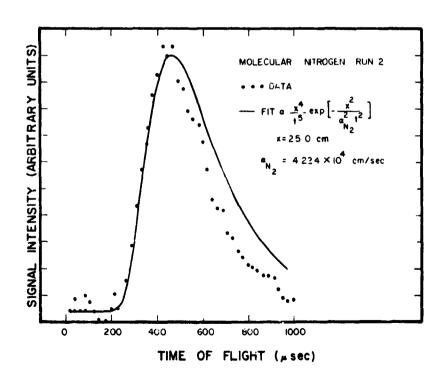


Figure 3.3 Measured time-of-flight spectrum for metastable nitrogen and curve expected in the absence of decay in flight.

Here N_a and N_A are the populations of $a^1\pi_g$ and $A^3\Sigma_u^+$ metastables in the beam when it leaves the electron gun; τ_a and τ_A are the mean lifetimes of the two states. Experimental data and the curve expected in the absence of decay are shown in Figure 3.3. A marked discrepancy between the data and the curve is observed, as expected.

Since the lifetime τ_A is of the order of one second (Muschlitz, 1968), the loss of $A^3 \Sigma_u^{\dagger}$ metascables from the beam is negligible over the flight times typical of this experiment ($\approx 10^{-3}$ sec). Consequently, the second exponential may be replaced by unity. The remaining lifetime τ_a and the population ratio N_a/N_A are then picked to give the best fit to the experimental data; the fitted lifetime is in agreement with the value $\tau_a = 1.7 \times 10^{-4}$ sec obtained by Lichten (1957). Further refinements in the experiment are expected to yield an improved value of this lifetime.

3.1.2 The Decay-with-Distance Method

In the experiment utilizing the decay of total metastable signal with distance, the electron gun is used in the <u>DC</u> mode. Once again argon is used as the calibrating gas; in this case, it is expected that no decay in total beam intensity should be observed as the detector is moved. For molecular nitrogen, however, the signal should fall off with distance in a manner related to the lifetimes of the metastable states in the beam (Lichten, 1957).

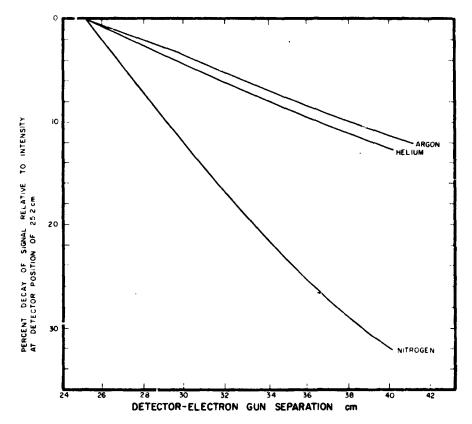


Figure 3.4 Measurements of beam strength as a function of detector position; results are shown for argon, helium and molecular nitrogen.

Experimental data are shown in Figure 3.4. The pronounced fall-off of the argon curve (and of the curve for helium, which was taken to qualitatively verify the phenomenon) is, of course, unrelated to a finite metastable lifetime. This change in intensity must, however, be understood in order to 'accurately measure lifetimes; we believe that the causes of the intensity change are geometric spreading of the beam, quenching due to collisions in the beam, and a change of detector efficiency with position due to spatially varying stray magnetic fields.

The data for nitrogen shown in the same figure show a much more drastic fall-off with distance, the difference between the argon and nitrogen curves being due to decay of the metastables along the beam. This decay can be essentially ascribed to the decay of the $a^1\pi_g$ state, yielding a lifetime in rough agreement with that measured by Lichten (1957).

3.2 COMMENTS AND CONCLUSIONS

In interpreting the data from the above experiments, it has been assumed that cascading from higher excited levels into the $a^1\pi_g$ metastable state lasts no longer than a few microseconds after excitation; further, it is assumed that $a^1\pi_g$ and $A^3\Sigma_u^{\dagger}$ are the only two metastable states populated in the beam. These assumptions may have to be reexamined in light of recent work by Freund (1969a, 1969b). However, the time-of-flight data obtained in the laboratory are sufficient to make empirical corrections to measured TOF spectra, allowing the velocity distribution in the ground state beam to be determined.

4. DIRECTIONAL SENSITIVITY OF MTOF ANALYZERS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

By using a small electron beam and a small detector, the MTOF method can provide good directional resolution of the incoming ground state beam, since the reccil effects on rapidly moving N₂ molecules are small (see Section 2). In the satellite experiment however, it is desirable to use an electron beam of large cross section and a detector of large area in order to improve the data counting rate; large areas, unfortunately, lead to a loss of angular resolution. The conflict between the requirements of good angular resolution and of large excitation and detector areas can be resolved in a simple manner by collimating the gas beam after it is excited.

This can be done by introducing an array of metallic tubes with the desired acceptance angle between the electron gun and the detector. Since metastables striking the walls of such tubes are very efficiently quenched (Donnelly, et al., 1969a), only the excited molecules which pass through the array without touching the walls, i.e., within the desired angular divergence, can be counted by the detector (the quenched molecules which emerge from the tubes more or less diffusely are in their ground states and cannot trigger the detector; thus, they are not counted); see Pichlik and Zorn, 1970.

4.2 EXPERIMENT

The experiment utilizes the standard MTOF arrangement, except that the gas enters the system through small holes, and that the metastable beam is collimated by an array of fine metal tubes; in addition, the entire detector system can be rotated about its midpoint (Figure 4.1). The sources used for these experiments are located in a plane, with angular separations of 6°.

The direction of maximum sensitivity and the angular resolving power of the analyzer system is related to the bore-to-length ratio d/L of the collimating tubes. If this ratio is small, the analyzer will allow molecules from one source to be detected and counted, while those from another source only a few degrees away will not be detected. Rotating the analyzer and observing the change in the counting rate allows the angular separation of the sources to be determined.

The test gas used in these experiments is argon. During operation, the electron gun provides $50\mu sec$ pulses of 30 volt electrons at a repetition rate of 500 Hz. The pulses during each gun pulse (due to photons) are blocked, and the angle θ (see Figure 4.1) is varied slowly and uniformly while the multichannel analyzer, operating in the multiscaling mode, steps from one channel to the next for storage of the data. Since each channel corresponds to a different direction, the peaks in the counts/channel distribution show the angular position of the gas sources,

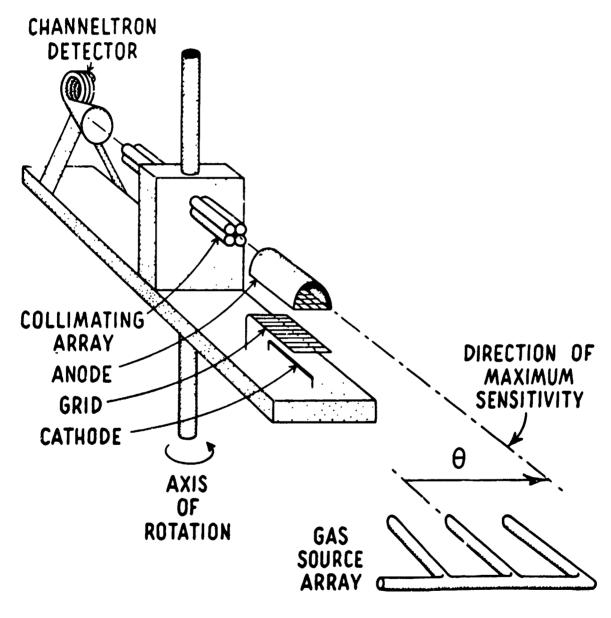


Fig. 4.1 Functional block diagram of directional gas analyzer.

with halfwidths characteristic of the resolving power of the collimating array.

4.3 CONCLUSIONS

The results shown in Figure 4.2 indicate that the directional sensitivity of a simple metastable time-of-flight system is significantly better than 6°. A more refined determination of the effects of the collimation system on the angular resolution of metastable time-of-flight systems is currently in progress.

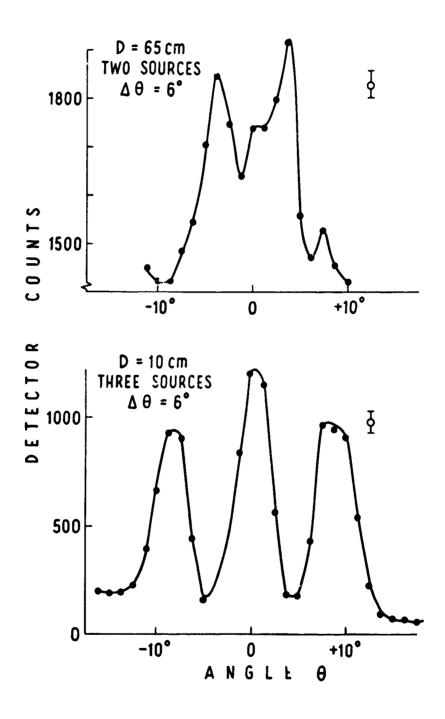


Figure 4.2 Counts vs. directional gas analyzer (DGA) direction θ . θ is measured from an arbitrary reference line. D is the distance from the source to the DGA; $\Delta\theta$ is the known angular separation of the sources. The upper figure is for two sources; the lower figure is for three sources.

5. CHANNEL MULTIPLIERS FOR DETECTION OF METASTABLE MOLECULES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A metastable atom or molecule usually de-excites upon striking a conducting surface. If the energy of the molecule's metastable state exceeds the work function of the surface, there is a probability on the order of a few percent that the de-excitation will be accompanied by the ejection of an electron from the surface (Hagstrum, 1960; Kaminsky, 1965; Prince, 1968). This Auger process can be used as the basis of a detector for weak beams of neutral, metastable molecules if the ejected Auger electrons are efficiently counted.

Direct multiplication of the Auger electrons can be employed to construct a sensitive and fast-responding detector; the metastable molecules are allowed to strike the cathode of a windowless electron multiplier so that almost every Auger electron ejected from the cathode will yield an output pulse from the multiplier. The pulses can be integrated and measured as a current if desired; however a main advantage of the direct multiplication method is that digital circuits can be used to process the output pulses if their rate is below 10⁶/sec. The use (Goodrich and Wiley, 1962; Evans, 1965) of a continuous channel electron multiplier (Bendix Channeltron) for the detection of weak beams of metastable molecules is discussed in this section. Compared to the multiple dynode (Bingham, 1966) and strip dynode (Goodrich and Wiley, 1961) multipliers which have been used

in this application, the continuous channel multiplier has the advantages of lower noise, simpler circuitry, and smaller size. In fact, since very compact and dense arrays of channel multipliers have proven practical for image intensification (Goodrich et.al., 1967), it should be feasible to do molecular scattering experiments in which an array of fifty or more channel multipliers acquires data simultaneously over a wide range of angles.

5.2 EXPERIMENT

Generally, experiments • done in vacuum systems which are evacuated to a base pressure on the order of 10⁻⁷ torr by oil diffusion pumps; during the measurements, the partial pressure of the gas under study sometimes exceeds 1 X 10⁻⁵ torr in the entire vacuum chamber. Liquid nitrogen traps are often used during runs, but no unusual care is taken to keep forepump or diffusion pump vapors from backstreaming into the systems during pumpdown. The detector output pulses are coupled to external circuitry using an emitter follower (Figure 5.1) which is mounted with the channeltron inside the vacuum chamber.

5.3 RESULTS

laboratory (Crosby and Zorn, 1969; Donnelly et al., 1969), thermal beams of metastable helium (20 eV), reon (16.5 eV), argon (11.5 eV), krypton (9.9 eV), xenon (8.3 eV), and molecular nitrogen (8.5 and 6.2 eV) have been detected (the numbers in parentheses are approximate energies of the metastable

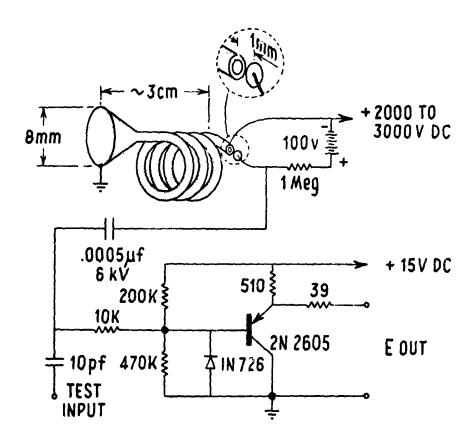


Figure 5.1 The Channeltron output is picked up by a small metal button and fed to the input of an emitter follower which is mounted together with the multiplier inside the vacuum chamber. The circuit serves as an impedance transformer so that the signal pulsas can be brought out through long, low impedance leads. With 2.1 kV on the multiplier, the emitter follower output pulses have an amplitude of 0.05 V and a rise time of less than 100 nanoseconds. We are indebted to James Svenson for suggesting this design.

states). Although the yield of Auger electrons per metastable molecule incident on the Channeltron cathode has not been measured here, it is judged that the yield is comparable to that achieved on the tungsten or platinum surfaces used in the conventional Auger detectors (Kaminsky, 1965), that is about 25% of any helium metastables incident on the Channeltron cathode will yield an output pulse from the multiplier. As one would expect, molecules with less energetic metastable states are detected less efficiently; metastable xenon, for example, seems to be detected about one percent as efficiently as is metastable helium (see also Prince, 1968). Molecules with metastable states less than 6 eV above the ground state will probably not be detected by the Channeltron. detection efficiency of a Channeltron for a given metastable species seems to remain within ten per cent or so of an equilibrium value in spite of exposure of the multiplier to humid air and backstreaming pump vapors.

The usual background signal, or dark current, in the Channeltron multiplier is 0.1 counts/sec or less, so it is feasible to do experiments with beam signals as low as 1 count/sec. To maintain a low background count rate it is essential to keep ultraviolet radiation (as from bare filaments), and ions (as from vacuum gauge tubes) out of the multiplier. Windows in the vacuum system need not be covered during the experiments, however, since the multiplier does not respond to visible light.

As stated above, the normal cathode of the Bendix multiplier will not yield Auger electrons for metastable molecules with excited states of energy less than about 6 eV. However, it has been found (Lichten, 1958; Lurio, 1962) that a coating of an alkali metal suffices to lower the cathode's effective work function to the neighborhood of 3 eV. The surprising aspect of this process is how little alkali is required to make the Channeltron sensitive to, say, room light transmitted through a plexiglas window. During experiments in this laboratory, a sodium molecular beam oven has been used in a vacuum system with several optical baffles between the sodium source and the multiplier. With all of this shielding, however, a substantial sensitivity of the multiplier to room light occurs within a few minutes of turning on the sodium beam. Thus, it is extremely easy to extend the range of multiplier response without running the risk of exposing the multiplier directly to an intense beam of the alkali metal. It is found, however, that the sensitivity of such a surface decays an hour or so after the oven is turned off, or after the system is opened to air. Consequently, continued deporition of the alkali at a low rate is required if the Channeltron is to be used over extended periods in a sensitized state.

Occasionally a Channeltron develops erratic gain or a very high noise level. This can come from mistreatment, such as overloading due to high counting rates, or from

causes which are less obvious. It is usually possible to restore such a multiplier to good operating condition by flushing it thoroughly with acetone or ethyl alcohol and letting it rest on the shelf for a few days. In fact, one Channeltron has been resuscitated in this manner after it had failed from a corona discharge that occured when the system vacuum was lost with 2.1 kV still applied to the multiplier. A noisy or inoperative multiplier should not be discarded before a few of these remedies have been tried.

The countinuous channel multipliers are made of glass tubing which can be broken if too much stress is exerted by the mount; once the multiplier is in place, however, the assembly is not overly delicate. Mounts in this laboratory are made from pieces of Teflon; at other laboratories these multipliers have been potted in epoxy resin. It is useful to know that pieces of a broken Channeltron can sometimes still be used for electron multiplication, albeit with lower gain, if new electrical connections for the DC voltage are made to the resistive glass tube with conducting paint.

5.4 DISCUSSION

We have made extensive use of the Bendix Channeltrons in our work with metastable molecules. They have proven to be very satisfactory for operation in the laboratory.

Indications are favorable (Smith, 1966; McCullough, 1968; Frank et al., 1969) that their long-term (1 month continuous use) reliability may be satisfactory for use in satellite

experiments. However, a careful study of the available windowless electron multipliers needs to be made before proceeding with the construction of an experiment which is to function continuously for weeks at a time (Cone, 1967). In addition to the Bendix Channeltron, the multipliers to be considered include the continuous channel units made by Phillips and the EMR division of Weston Instruments, and the magnetic "strip" multiplier made by Bendix, as well as the discrete dynode multipliers made by EMI, RCA, EMR, Nuclide Analysis Associates, and others.

6. ELECTRONICS FOR LABORATORY TIME-OF-FLIGHT STUDIES

The electronic requirements for laboratory TOF studies and for actual flight experiments are similar, but the specific electrical equipment used in the laboratory and aboard a satellite is necessarily quite different. In this section the laboratory electronics system is described; a breadboard system for flight application is discussed in Section 7.

6.1 BASIC OPERATION OF THE SYSTEM

Recall that in the TOF method, gas from an external source (or reflected from some test surface) passes through a pulsed electron gun. During the electron gun current pulse, some molecules are excited to metastable states. The resulting packet of metastable molecules spreads out in time; the excited molecules reach the detector after time intervals which are inversly proportional to their velocities.

The system shown in Fig. 6.1 performs the following functions during the acquisition of time-of-flight data:

- (1) It supplies short, periodic pulses to the electron gun in order to excite the molecules;
- (2) It amplifies and shapes pulses from the detector;
- (3) It prevents the entry into the pulse height analyzer of detector signals (due to photons) which occur during the firing of the electron gun;
- (4) It modulates the pulses from the detector so that their amplitudes are proportional to the time

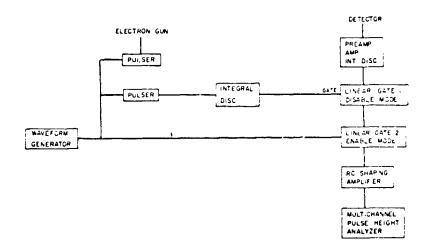


Figure 6.1 Block diagram of the time-of-flight electronics.

intervals between the firing of the electron gun and the instants when the metastable molecules arrive at the detector;

(5) It analyzes and stores these modulated pulses. The cyclic operation of the TOF system is controlled by a waveform generator which initiates operations for the performance of functions 1, 3, 4.

Metastable molecules are produced by electron bombardment in a field free region of the electron gun anode. A high current pulse generator controls the electron gun anode voltage. The pulses are typically 5-50 µsec wide and range up to 100 volts in amplitude; their repetition rate is typically lKHz. In order to remove detector pulses caused by photons which are emitted during the electron gun current pulse, a linear gate operating in the disabling mode is employed. The

detector pulses are sent to the signal input of the linear gate; a gating pulse, adjusted to occur simultaneously with the electron gun pulse, is sent to the gate input of the linear gate. Any detector pulses occuring during this gating interval are not passed.

Time-to-pulse-height conversion is achieved with the use of a second linear gate. A linear ramp is applied to the signal input of the gate; the detector pulses are applied to the gate input. Small portions of the ramp (width about 2 µsec) are passed when the detector pulses open the linear gate. The amplitudes of these portions are directly proportional to the time intervals between the firing of the electron gun and the instants when the metastable atoms arrive at the detector. Typical pulses are shown in Figure 6.2.

6.2 CIRCUIT DESCRIPTIONS

We obtain TOF spectra from more than one experimental system, and it is convenient for each setup to have as much of the electronic equipment continuously available as possible. Consequently, we have developed a simple, inexpensive and easily duplicated system to perform functions 1)-4) above. A block diagram of the system, similar to that shown in Figure 6.1, is shown in Figure 6.3. The basic operation is essentially that described above. The ramp generator determines the time base. The pulser for the electron gun supplies the necessary anode voltage control. The electron gun pulse is adjustable in time relative to the beginning of a sawtooth

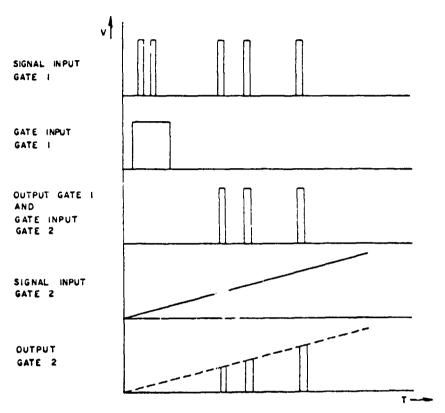


Figure 6.2 Typical pulse distributions, demonstrating the functions of the linear gates 1 and 2 shown in Figure 6.1.

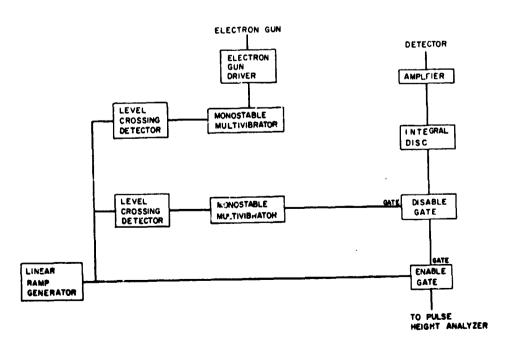


Figure 6.3 Block diagram of the laboratory time-of-flight electronics.

cycle by biasing a level crossing detector; in width by adjusting a variable resistor in the monostable multivibrator; and in magnitude by a voltage externally applied to the electron gun driver. The control to the disable gate (to block photons) is derived from a level crossing detector and monostable multivibrator identical to those used for the electron gun. Time-to-pulse-height conversion is achieved in an identical manner to that described above. The system we have constructed to perform functions 1)-4) above contains about \$65 worth of semiconductor components. Brief descriptions and circuit diagrams of some of the constructed circuits follow.

6.2.1 The Sawtooth Generator

The sawtooth generator is an integrator driven by a modified Schmitt trigger and a buffer. The trigger controls the integrator by reversing the charging current when the appropriate integrator output levels are reached. R_1 , R_2 and R_3 determine the trigger levels (in our case 0 and 8 V). The variable resistor then determines the slope of the sawtooth. The capacitor is charged through an operational amplifier for improved linearity.

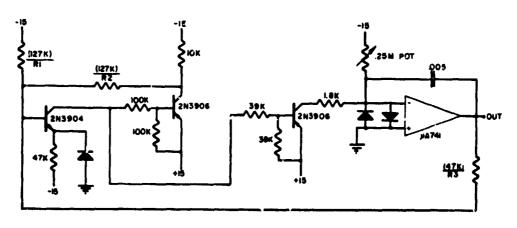


Figure 6.4 Sawtooth Generator.

6.2.2 The Level Crossing Detector

The level crossing detector is composed of a differential comparator, a differentiating network and an inverting amplifier. The sawtooth triggers the comparator at some adjustable voltage level. The output voltage of the comparator is positive (~9 V) until it is triggered; it then drops to a less positive voltage (~4 V) until the end of the cycle. This square pulse is differentiated and fed to the base of a transistor which is heavily conducting. The positive pulse cannot turn the transistor on further so it does not appear at the collector. The negative pulse shuts off the transistor, giving a positive pulse out.

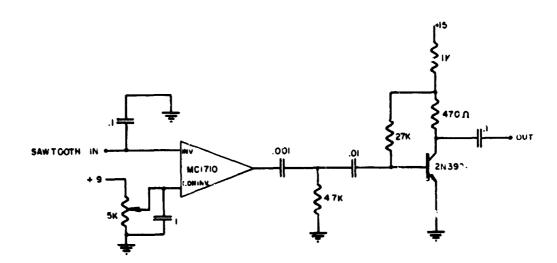


Figure 6.5 Level Crossing Detector.

6.2.3 The Monostable Multivibrator

The monostable multivibrator unit consists of a trigger isolater, a multivibrator proper, and an inverting amplifier. The duration of the output pulse is controlled by a 50 K potentionetor used as a variable resistor. The integral discriminator is identical to the multivibrator except for a fixed resistor to make the output pulse 2 µsec in duration and a varible offset bias applied to the input transistor base. This biasing serves as the threshold control of the integral discriminator.

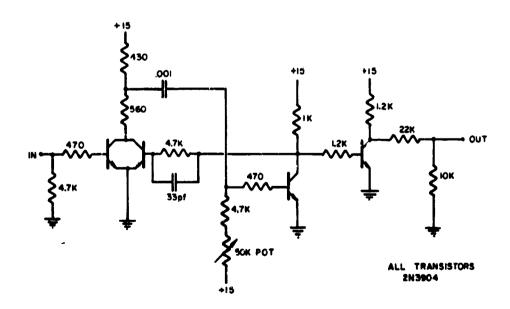


Figure 6.6 Monostable Multivibrator.

6.2.4 The Linear Gates

The enable and disable gate circuits each use a single field effect transistor. In the enabling gate, the FET normally has a low resistance compared to the 100 K resistor so the output is grounded. The gate pulse gives the FET a high resistance and then most of the signal appear, across the 100 K at the output. In the disable gate however, the FET is in series and normally passes the signal. The gating pulse makes the FET a high impedance relative to the 30 K and effectively grounds the output.

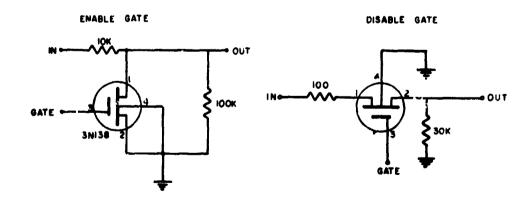


Figure 6.7 Linear Gates.

7. BREADBOARD ELECTRONICS FOR A FLIGHT EXPERIMENT

An analysis of the electronic system required to support a flight experiment indicated that two developments were needed: 1) a data processor to perform the time-of-flight analysis, and 2) an electron gun which would both meet the experimental needs and be flyable from the point of view of ruggedness and power. The breadboard development effort was concentrated in these two areas. The necessary technology for constructing the remaining subsystems (principally power supplies) is considered to be adequately developed.

7.1 THE DATA PROCESSOR

The optimum choice of the data processor for a time-offlight analysis depends in a direct way on the telemetry data
rate available to the experiment. The choices range from
telemetering the time of flight of each metastable detected,
to telemetering the total number of pulses arriving during
pre-selected time increments over preset integration times.
The advantages of the first choice are simplicity and flexibility at the expense of data rate, while the advantage of
the second is low data rate at the expense of increased complexity and the need to define a priori integration times.
The system that has been designed and built is a non-integrating
type which can be directly expanded to an inflight integrating
system with the addition of "off the shelf" hardware. In
addition, the analyzer is designed to provide either digital
or analog outputs to adapt to satellite requirements.

The basic system consists of a pulse amplifier, a discriminator, a 200 KHz clock driving seven flip flops in series, and an electron gun driver. The 2⁷ output states of the flip flops provide a 128 channel time code which increments every five microseconds. At the beginning of each frame, i.e., at the negative going change of state of the most significant bit, the electron gun driver is pulsed. Each data pulse received at the electron multiplier is then conditioned by the pulse amplifier and discriminator, and used to gate the time code into the associated output circuitry. Therefore, each time code word received indicates the elapsed time between that data pulse and the preceding electron gun pulse. Figure 7.1 is a block diagram of this basic system.

The system is straightforward, the only subtle innovation being the addition of a pulse stretching circuit. Since transition times for the flip-flop states make up about 5% of the frame time, and this transition time is essentially noise, it is desirable to keep data pulses from gating time code words during the transitions. To do this the properties of the discriminator are utilized; the discriminator is a Schmitt trigger which is turned on when the input pulse exceeds the upper trigger level and is not turned off until the input falls below the lower trigger level. Each time the least significant flip flop changes state a pulse slightly longer than the transition time of all seven flip flops is generated and fed to the discriminator through a diode OR

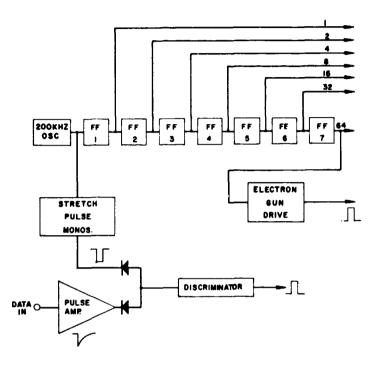


Figure 7.1 Basic time-of-flight analyzer system.

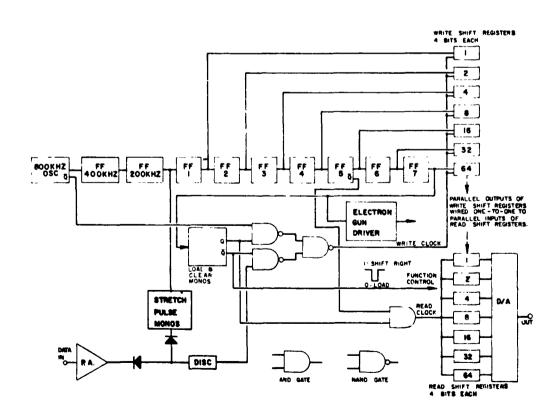


Figure 7.2 Non-integrating, analog output time-of-flight analyzer.

gate along with the data input. The amplitude of the stretch pulse is set between the trigger levels such that, if no data pulse is present above the upper trigger level, the discriminator is not triggered. However, once the discriminator is triggered by a data pulse it cannot turn off until the stretch pulse disaprears, thus prohibiting discriminator output pulser from falling during the transitions (in this system falling edges initiate triggering).

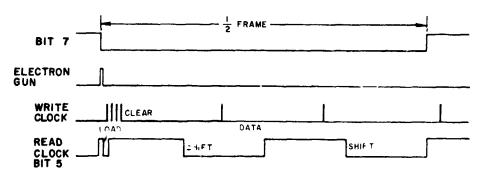
To illustrate one of many possible output circuits that can be added to the basic system, a non-integrating analog output system is described. This arrangement is similar to one that was constructed and tested at the Space Physics Research Laboratory in breadboard form. Referring to the block diagram in Figure 7.2, the additions consist mainly of a set of READ and WRITE shift registers and a D/A converter. time code is gated by the data pulses into the WRITE shift registers and stored until the beginning of the next frame. At the beginning of each frame the contents of the WRITE shift registers are first dumped into the READ shift registers; the WRITE registers are then cleared in preparation for the next data. Then as the WRITE shift registers store the randomly arriving data, the READ shift registers read the transferred data into the D/A converter at a periodic rate. This is done to reduce the telemetering bandwidth requirements from those required for random data. The necessary capacity of the shift registers for a satellite experiment is discussed in Section 9.1; for the breadboard system, however, it was found that four bits per register were adequate to insure

"infrequent" overflow. The timing functions are illustrated in Figure 7.3.

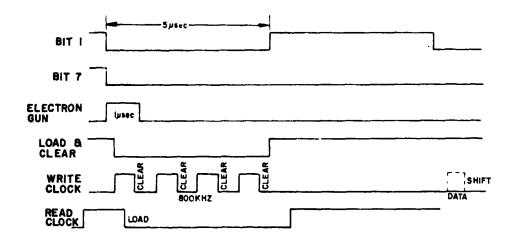
The analog output data can be conveniently sorted, integrated and displayed using a commercial pulse height analyzer. The upper display in Figure 7.4 shows data taken by the breadboard time-of-flight analyzer which have been sorted and integrated as mentioned above; the lower display was produced by the commercial analyzer and the laboratory electronics (Section 6) under the same experimental conditions. The vertical and horizontal scales were adjusted to be approximately the same.

To convert the system to a pulse code modulated (PCM) output, the D/A converter is removed, the READ shift registers are wired in series, and the READ clock rate is increased by a factor of seven or more to shift out all twenty-eight bits within the frame time. The output appears as non-return-to-zero (NRZ) serial PCM.

A way to obtain integrated digitial data is to remove the shift registers and feed the flip flop outputs to a binary-to-decimal converter for sorting. Each decimal line of the converter then drives a counter of the desired capacity to provide a straightforward method of integration; substituting a commercial memory for the counters would probably provide more storage capability for a given volume. Addition of a D/A converter to this system alters the integrating digital system to an integrating system with analog output.



MAJOR TIMING FUNCTIONS



EXPANDED TIMING FOR LOAD AND CLEAR

Figure 7.3 Timing sequences.

Α

В

-

Figure 7.4 Time-of-flight analyzer displays. Curve A shows data processed by the prototype satellite experiment electronics; curve B shows data processed by the laboratory electronics. Both displays are taken from oscilloscope displays from a commercial pulse height analyzer which was used for data storage; the distinctive steps in the curves are due to the 2-digit decoding used in the analyzer display.

7.2 THE ELECTRON GUN

In order to provide a suitably large burst of metastable molecules, the electron gun should produce a beam current of at least 5 mA at an accelerating voltage of 40 volts, and should have a planar beam geometry. The required engineering features are ruggedness, low power consumption, and immunity to atmospheric contamination when the cathode is cool. A planar Pierce gun with an impregnated matrix cathode seems to best satisfy the above conditions (Kirstein et al., 1967). Section 7.2.1 describes the design of the gun and Section 7.2.2 includes the test results and conclusions.

7.2.1 Design

The desired beam parameters are:

Beam current: 5 mA

Accelerating voltage: 40 volts

Beam shape: planar: thickness 2t = 2mm, length L = 10mm, width w = 10mm. A sectional view of a planar Pierce gun capable of approximating the desired beam shape is shown in Figure 7.5.

Define the following quantities:

 $P = perveance = I/V^{3/2}$

 $N = number of squares = \frac{w}{2t}$

P_{sq} = perveance per square = P/N

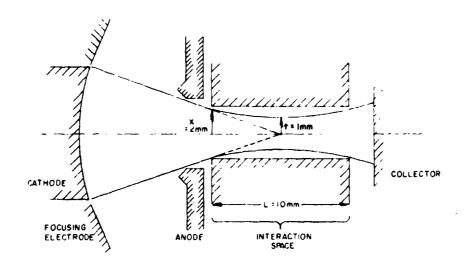


Figure 7.5 The planar Pierce gun.

For maximum perveance, i.e., maximum beam current, the electrons must be aimed for the center of the interaction space, as shown by the dashed lines in the figure. Space charge effects, however, will only allow the beam to reach a minimum thickness of 2t. The minimum thickness is related to the thickness at the entrance of the interaction space by

$$\frac{x}{t} = 2.0$$

For such a gun the limiting perveance per square is given by

$$P_{sq} = 4 \epsilon_0 \sqrt{\frac{2e}{m}} \left(\frac{x}{L}\right)^2$$
$$= 21 \times 10^{-6} \left(\frac{x}{L}\right)^2 \text{ perv/square}$$

Using the given parameters (x = 2mm and L = 10mm) it is found that

$$P_{sq} = 0.84 \times 10^{-6} \text{ perv/square}$$

In addition, the number of squares desired is

$$N = \frac{w}{2t} = 5$$

so that

$$P = 4.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ perv.}$$

At 40 volts and the given perveance, the maximum beam current is only 1.06 ma. Thus, to increase the current at 40 volts, it is necessary to employ a focusing magnet.

Consider a magnetic focusing field \overline{B} in the direction of the electron flow (see Figure 7.6). Let v_0 be the velocity of the beam electrons—the x-direction. Under conditions of Brillouin flow the solution to the differential equation of motion is

$$\frac{2e}{m} q(y) = v_0^2 + \omega y^2$$

where q is the stream potential and

$$\omega = \frac{eB}{m}$$

In addition, the presence of the magnetic field introduces a shearing motion in the plane of the beam, as indicated in Figure 7.6. The resulting lateral velocity of the electrons

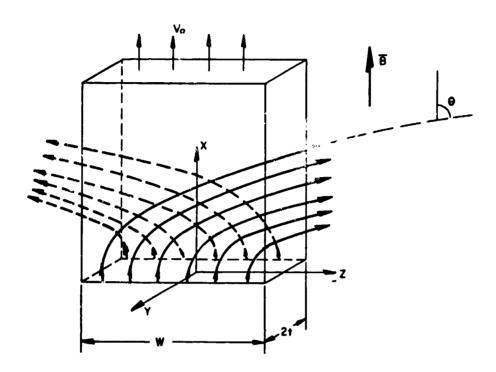


Figure 7.6 Idealized electron beam with magnetic focusing.

is found to be

$$z = \omega y$$

Introducing the total electron velocity v, it is easily shown that

$$\frac{\dot{z}}{v} = \frac{\alpha}{1 + \alpha^2}$$

where

$$\alpha = \frac{\omega y}{v_o} = \tan \theta$$

and θ is the angle the total velocity vector makes with the

desired direction of flow (the x-direction).

For this flow the maximum perveance per square is found to be

$$P_{sq} = 2 \epsilon_{o} \sqrt{\frac{2e}{m}} \alpha^{2}$$

$$= 10.5 \times 10^{-6} \alpha^{2} \text{ perv/square}$$

For a 5 mA beam at 40 volts, the definition of perveance gives $P = 19.8 \times 10^{-6}$ perv. Consequently

$$P_{sq} = \frac{19.8 \times 10^{-6}}{5} = 3.96 \times 10^{-6} \text{ perv/square}$$

Using the previous equation, this leads to

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{3.96}{10.5} = .377$$

or

$$\alpha = .614$$

With this value of α , the minimum strength of the confining magnetic field can be calculated

$$B_{\min} = \frac{m\omega}{e} = \frac{m\alpha v_{o}}{ey}$$

= 131 gauss

For a smaller field than this, it is not possible to obtain 5 mA at 40 volts.

The shearing angle at the surface of the electron sheet can also be evaluated. From the definition of α , the lateral velocity of the electrons at the beam surface is 61.4% of the

axial velocity, leading to a shearing angle

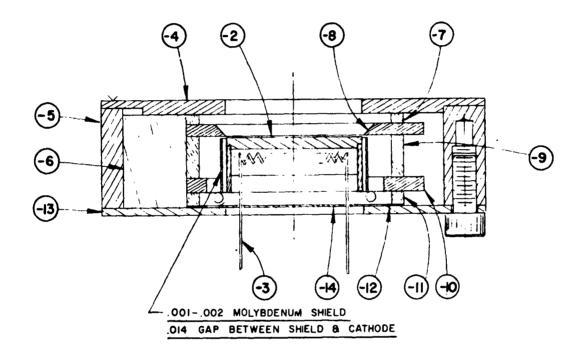
 $\theta = \arctan \alpha = 31.5^{\circ}$

Ideally one would like as large an electron current as possible. However, increasing the gun current requires higher perveance, which increases the shearing angle. Unfortunately, it is desirable to keep this angle as small as possible, since a large range of angles complicates the analysis of the velocity distribution of the gas particles.

7.2.2 Testing and Results

An electron gun was constructed to the specifications of the previous Section (see Figure 7.7). Figure 7.8 shows the electron gun and collector plates mounted inside a bell jar. An overall view of the entire test system is shown in Figure 7.9.

The electron gun collector used in the test consists of two molybdenum plates, one inch in diameter, coated with a graphite paint to reduce electron reflection and secondary emission. The plates are insulated from each other and spaced 0.05 inch apart. A 0.012 inch diameter hole was drilled in the center of the collection plate nearest the anode. This hole allows a small fraction of the beam current to reach the second collector plate; by measuring the current to the second collector as a function of the position of the double collector assembly with respect to the remainder of the gun, it is possible to determine the relative current density over the cross section of the beam.



- 2. CATHODE
- 3. FILAMENT
- 4. ANODE (1.125" D)
- 5. ANODE CYLINDER
- 6. ALIGNMENT ROD
- 7. ANODE -FOCUS ELECTRODE SPACER
- 8. FOCUS ELECTRODE
- 9. CATHODE FOCUS ELECTRODE SPACER
- 10. CATHODE SUPPORT DISC
- II. END PLATE CATHODE SPACER
- 12. SPRING
- 13. END PLATE
- 14. HEAT SHIELD

Figure 7.7 Design drawing for electron gun.



Figure 7.8 The electron gun mounted for testing.



Figure 7.9 The electron beam analyzer.

Test results are presented in the form of graphs as follows. A current density profile of the electron beam is shown in Figure 7.10. In Figure 7.11 the accelerating voltage (anode voltage) is held constant at 40 volts and the electrode currents are plotted as a function of collector voltage. Figure 7.12 is a graph of the electrode currents versus accelerating voltage, where the collector voltage is held equal to the accelerating voltage. In Figure 7.13 the accelerating voltage is constant at 40 volts, the focus electrode voltage is varied and the electrode currents are recorded. Figure 7.14 is similar to Figure 7.13 except the accelerating voltage is 20 volts. Figure 7.15 is a plot of the filament current versus filament voltage. In each case the magnetic field intensity is 245 gauss, a value larger than that indicated by the design calculations.

7.2.3 Conclusions

Operating data obtained for the electron gun are shown in Table 7.I. Higher beam currents are obtainable using cathode temperatures above that recommended for operation by the manufacturer, and at the expense of larger focus electrode currents. At the recommended operating temperature the cathode power consumption is 11 watts. It was also found that the 5 mil tungsten cathode leads are easily fractured in spite of their 3% rhenium content.

In view of the above factors it is felt that although the electron gun is useful as it stands, improvement for flight applications is desirable in the areas of ruggedness and power consumption.

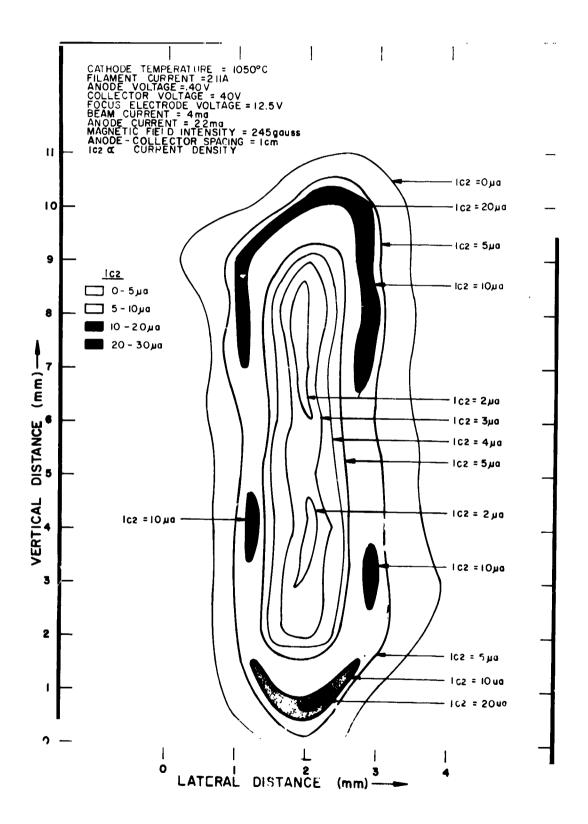


Figure 7.10 Relative cross sectional current density at the anode for an anode-collector spacing of 1 cm.

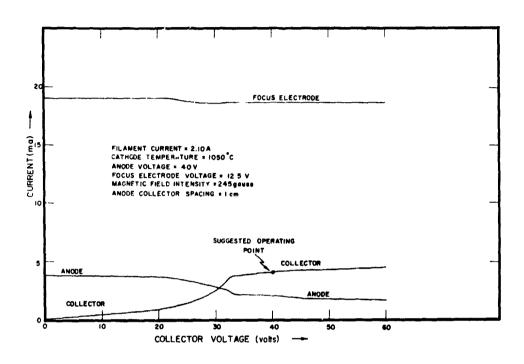


Figure 7.11 Electrode currents vs. collector voltage for fixed anode voltage.

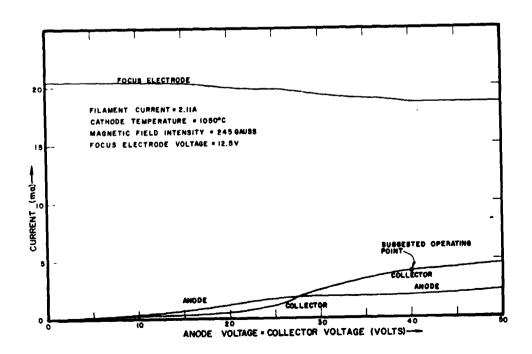


Figure 7.12 Electrode currents vs. accelerating voltage.

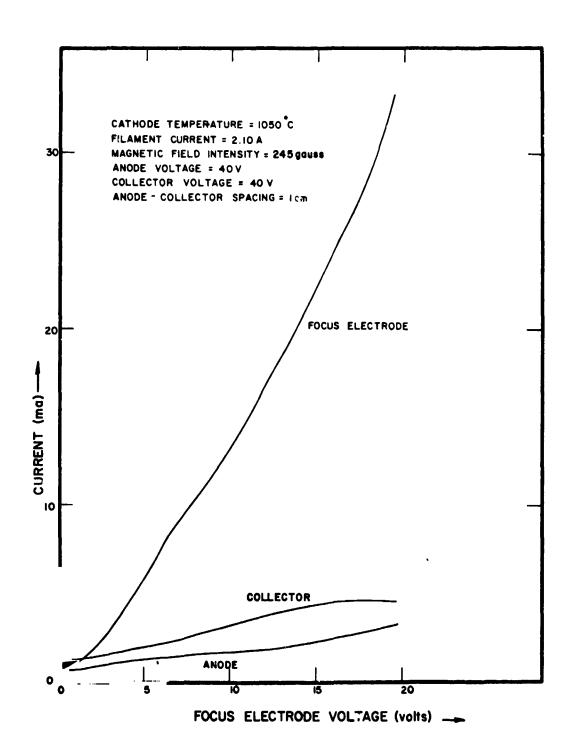


Figure 7.13 Electrode currents vs. focus electrode voltage; anode voltage = collector voltage = 40 v.

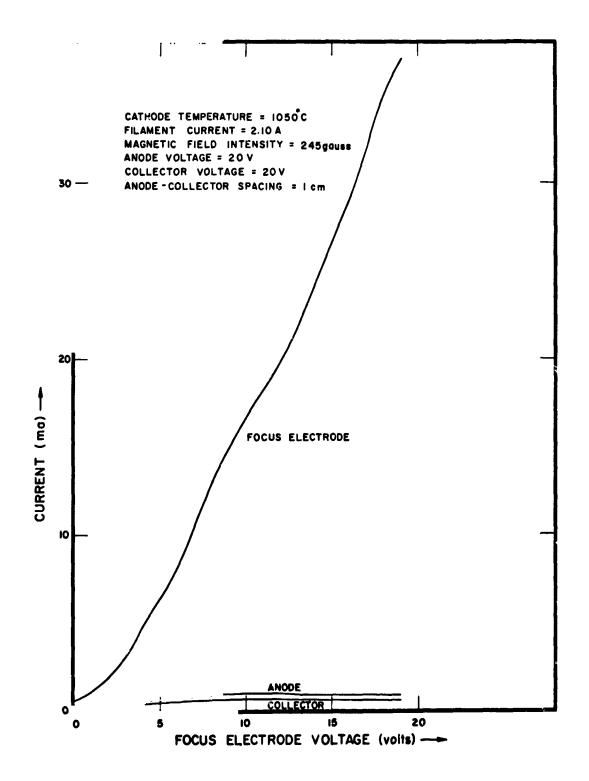


Figure 7.14 Electrode currents vs. focus electrode voltage; anode voltage = collector voltage = 20 v.

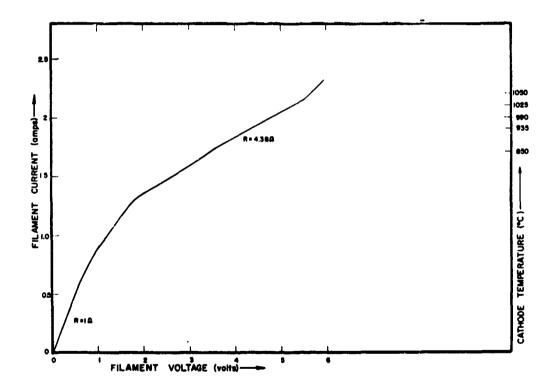


Figure 7.15 Filament current vs. filament voltage vs. cathode temperature.

Anode & Collector Voltage	Collector Current Ma	Anode Current Ma	Focus Electrode Voltage	Focus Electrode Current Ma
10	.3	.3	1.9	2.2
20	1.0	9	7.5	8.0
30	2.4	1.8	12.5	20.5
40	4.0	2.2	12.5	20.5
	I _r = 2.1 amps		B = 245 Gauss	

Table 7.I Operating Parameters for the Electron Gun

8. MCLECULAR FLUX ESTIMATES

In order to provide convenient numerical data on conditions encountered by a flight experiment, particle fluxes have been compiled, using a standard atmosphere; these are shown graphically in Figures 8.1 and 8.2 (Zorn and Pearl, 1967). The fluxes (N₂, 0₂, 0 and the totals) are for the previously proposed ODYSSEY (rbit with an apoger of 2,000 km and a perigee of 200 km. Satellite altitude and time from perigee are also indicated. All atmospheric parameters have been caken from the CIRA 1965 reference atmosphere, Model 4.

Figure 8.1 has been drawn using parameters for 0400 hours; Figure 8.2 has been drawn using parameters for 1400 hours. Consequently, the two sets of data provide results for the extreme diurnal exospheric temperatures encountered during one equatorial orbit.

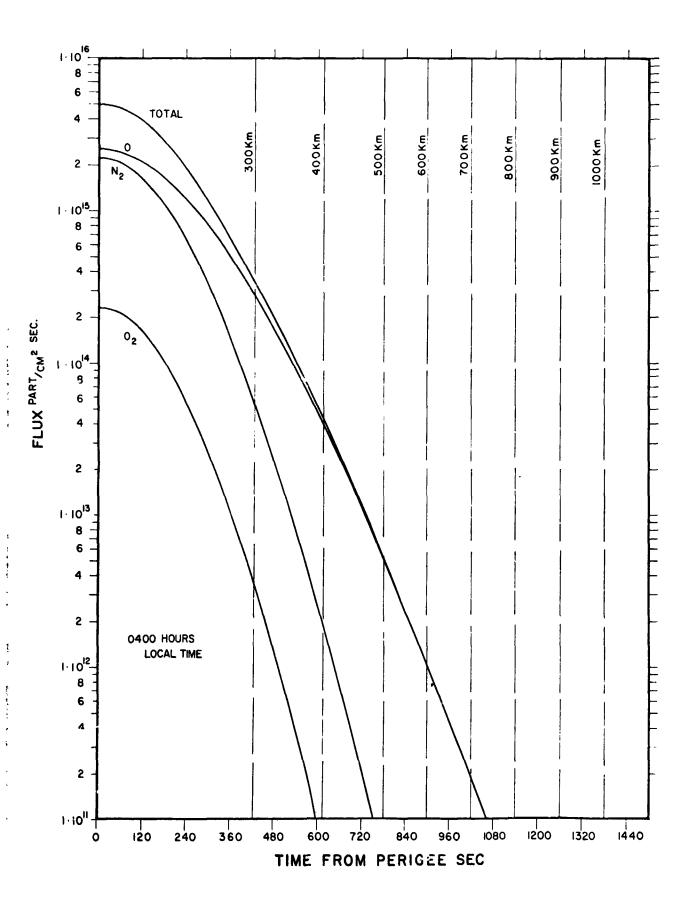


Fig. 8.1 Fluxes of major atmospheric constituents to a satellite in proposed ODYSSEY orbit for 0400 hours local time.

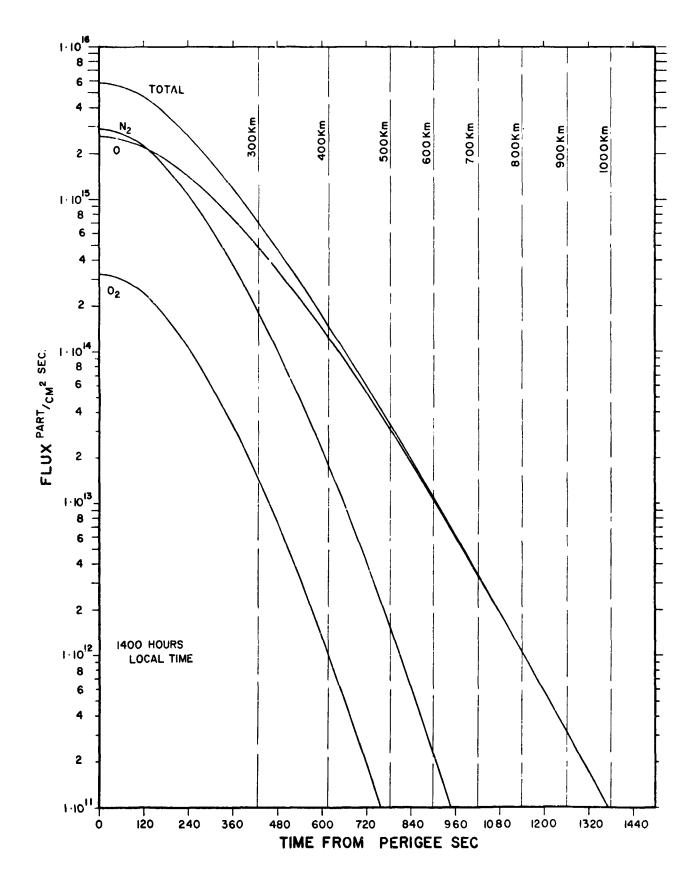


Fig. 8.2 Fluxes of major atmospheric constituents to a satellite in proposed ODYSSEY orbit for 1400 hours local time.

9. ENGINEERING PARAMETERS OF THE FLIGHT EXPERIMENT

A wide range in the possible scope of an in-flight gassurface interaction experiment exists. An initial experiment, for example, might involve a time-of-flight analysis of ambient molecular nitrogen, taken for a single incident and reflected angle. A simple experiment of this type could be carried out on a rocket for reasonable cost and would require only modest weight, power, and telemetry rate.

A "full blown" version of the experiment, on the other hand, would be costly in terms of volume and data rate, and would require a rather special satellite system on which to mount it. The financial cost of such an experiment would also be great and would clearly dictate the first step precursor. On the basis of that rationale, the engineering parameters of the simple version are presented below, and the parameters of a more complex experiment are discussed only in a general way.

9.1 TELEMETRY REQUIREMENTS

The breadboard electronic system which has been built provides 128 time channels (seven binary bits of information) and can accomodate up to 4 pulses per frame. Using time code increments of five microseconds requires operating at a repetition rate of $\frac{1}{128 \times 5 \times 10^{-6}} = 1560$ frames per second; with no inflight integration this would require a data rate of 44,000 bits/second per detector in the array (Figure 1.2).

This rate is reasonable for a rocket flight of a simple, single-surface experiment but would probably be prohibitive for a satellite utilizing a tape recorder, although a reduction in rate might be realized by making the system adaptive to the minimum information rate required for experiment resolution.

OGO-6, for example, with 25 experiments provides only an 8,000 bit/second rate with full orbit coverage. Therefore, for a satellite, it would undoubtedly be necessary to integrate in flight. The integration time would be a strong function of the satellite orbit and of the scope of the experiment.

9.2 POWER, SIZE, AND WEIGHT REQUIREMENTS

The power required for the experiment is minimal. In its current state of development 15 watts would be adequate and it is anticipated that 10 watts can be easily achieved. A multiplicity of detector surfaces would raise this estimate only slightly since a major portion of the power is used by the electron gun, and need not be duplicated.

The volume required for the electronic system is .5 cubic feet. The volume and dimension of the analyzer system depends on the complexity of the experiment. A simple version could be mounted in .5 cubic feet or less for a total of 1 cubic foot and with a total weight of 20 pounds.

9.3 STABILIZATION REQUIREMENTS

It is desirable and perhaps essential for the experiment to maintain a constant angle to the velocity vector during

acquisition of any one set of data. In a rocket experiment, this criterion would be satisfied adequately in a stable rocket. For a satellite experiment, two axis stabilization would be desirable. An ideal condition would be a fully stabilized platform in a circular orbit at a low altitude.

9.4 SUMMARY OF ENGINEERING PARAMETERS FOR A SIMPLE GAS SURFACE INTERACTION EXPERIMENT

The major engineering parameters for a simple rocketborne experiment are tabulated below:

Weight 20 pounds

Volume 1 cubic foot

Power 15 watts

Telemetry Rate 64 K bits/sec

Table 9.I Engineering Parameters.

10. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

10.1 SUMMARY

The metastable time-of-flight technique has been developed to the point where it can be used to perform gas-surface interaction measurements in situ in the earth's atmosphere. Much of this development has been performed under the present contract. The work includes the following:

- The effect of recoil on the velocity distribution of metastable atoms or molecules produced by electron impact has been studied in detail (Section 2). It has been found that the velocity distributions can be significantly different from what would be expected if recoil effects were negligible. Given the conditions of a pulsed electron beam directed at right angles through a collimated beam of thermal energy helium atoms, it has been determined both experimentally and from kinematic arguments that the metastable velocity distribution has two peaks. In addition, both the peak separation and mean velocity of the distribution are sensitive to such parameters as electron energy and deflection angle. An understanding of this problem is essential for the correct analysis of data from any future flight experiments utilizing this technique.
- B. The effect of short-lived metastable states on the interpretation of velocity distributions in N_2

beams has been studied (Section 3). In extracting information about the velocity distribution of the ground state beam from measurements on a metastable beam, it is simplest to assume that the lifetime of the metastable level is infinite. However, the metastable $a^1\pi_g$ state of N_2 has a lifetime which is comparable to the drift time of particles in the proposed instrument.

The lifetime of this excited level, which must be known in order to take proper account of the decay of metastable molecules which occurs while the beam drifts from the electron gun to the detector, can be measured in two ways. The first, a time-of-flight method, provides lifetime information by comparing separate time-of-flight spectra obtained using long-lived and short-lived states of metastable molecules. The second method utilizes the decay of the total metastable signal due to a single short-lived component with distance. In the present work the first method has been employed more successfully than the second.

C. A time-of-flight system which is capable of observing a gas flux from a given direction is described in Section 4. With a simple initial system an angular resolution of better than 6° has been achieved. It is essential to know the collimation of the incoming

beam for a correct description of recoil effects on velocity distributions (see Section 2). By using a directional gas analyzer, a time-of-flight system with the desired collimation for a given experiment can be designed.

- D. The detection of metastable atoms and molecules using a continuous channel electron multiplier (Bendix Channeltron) is discussed in Section 5.

 Such detectors have been used to detect a wide range of metastable molecular species with excitation energies in excess of 6 eV. They appear promising as detectors for a satellite experiment.
- E. The basic electronic system for acquiring laboratory time-of-flight data is discussed in Section
- 6. It utilizes time-to-pulse-height conversion and pulse height analysis.

Breadboard electronics for data analysis in flight experiments have been successfully tested in the laboratory and are discussed in Section 7. A prototype electron gun for satellite experiments has been designed; its operation is discussed in Section 7.

10.2 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective of this study has been to develop a technique and associated flight hardware for measuring the velocity distribution of molecules in a rarefied gas; the resulting experiment package is to be used for the measurements of gas-surface interaction phenomena in situ in the earth's atmosphere.

The metastable time-of-flight system described in this report has been prepared to achieve this objective. Specifically, it has been demonstrated that: a) the velocity distributions of metastable atoms produced by electron impact can be measured with a time-of-flight analyzer, and b) these distributions can be related to the incident gas flux through kinematic considerations. In addition, breadboard electronics for data analysis in flight experiments has been successfully tested in the laboratory. Thus the basis for the measurement has been established.

As a preliminary test of the above method, a simple experiment (see Section 9) could be carried out on a rocket. This would provide a verification of the total system.

APPENDIX I

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EFFECT OF RECOIL ON THE VELOCITY DISTRIBUTION OF METASTABLE ATOMS PRODUCED BY ELECTRON IMPACT *

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We have shown both experimentally and by a simple kinematic argument that the velocity distribution in a beam of metastable atoms produced by electron bombardment of ground state atoms deviates strongly from the velocity distribution of the ground state atoms.

The velocity distribution of metastable atoms often enters explicitly into the analysis of resonance [1] and collision [2,3] experiments done with atomic beams. However, there have been few direct measurements and no correct theoretical description of the velocity distribution in a beam of metastable

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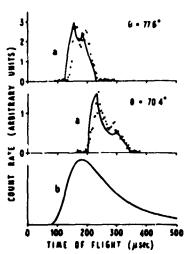


Fig. 1. Time-of-flight spectra for helium. Points represent experimental data. Curves a are theoretical accounting for the angular divergence of the incoming, ground state beam, assuming $E - E^{\alpha} = 0.75$ eV. Curve b is theoretical if recoil effects are neglected.

atoms formed in the common experimental arrangement where ground state atoms in a collimated beam are excited by a transverse beam of electrons.

In our experiment a pulsed electron beam is directed at right angles (Φ = 900) through a collimated beam of thermal energy helium atoms. The metastable atoms are detected [4] with an electron multiplier (Bendix Channeltron) which can be rotated about the interaction region in the plane defined by the incoming electron and atom beams. Samplis of data taken at two different angles θ (angles measured from direction of electron beam) are plotted as points in fig. 1. Striking features of these results, when compared with what would be found if recoil effects were negligible (curve b in fig. 1) include the narrowness of the distributions, the presence of two peaks, and the sensitivity to deflection angle of the position of the distribution.

The principal features of these distributions can be understood from kinematic considerations. If the gas beam effuses ideally from a thermal source (most probable speed α), if the ground state beam is perfectly collimated, if the detector is small, and if the electron scattering is s-wave, then conservation of momentum and energy determine the following velocity distribution for the metastable atoms in the plane of the incident beams

$$f(v) = \frac{v^2 v_{0+}^2 \exp(-v_{0+}^2/\alpha^2) + v_{0-}^2 \exp(-v_{0-}^2/\alpha^2)}{\left[V^2 - \left\{ (m/M)u_0 \sin \Phi - v \sin (\Phi - \theta) \right\}^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}}$$
(1)

for $v_{\min} \le v \le v_{\max}$, where

$$v_{\max} = \left[\frac{m}{M}u_0 \sin \Phi \pm V\right] \csc (\Phi - \theta) \qquad \begin{cases} \theta < \Phi \\ V < (mu_0/M) \sin \Phi \end{cases}$$
 (2)

and

$$v_{0\pm} = v \cos(\Phi - \theta) - \frac{m}{M} u_0 \cos\Phi \pm \left\{ V^2 - \left[\frac{m}{M} u_0 \sin\Phi - v \sin(\Phi - \theta) \right]^2 \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 (3)

Here $V=[2m(E-E^*)]^{\frac{1}{2}}/M$; m and M are the masses of the electron and atom respectively; E^* is the energy of the metastable state; and u_0 and E are the speed and kinetic energy, respectively, of the incident electron. The distribution f(v), which is zero outside the limits given in eq. (2), is in disagreement with functions previously presented [7,8]. In the present experiment the detector subtends only a very small angle ($\Delta\theta\approx0^08'$), but the divergence of the incoming beam ($\Delta\Phi\approx3^0$) is significant. A numerical integration of eq. (2) over the beam divergence yields curves a of fig. 1.

The present study of velocity distributions in beams of metastable atoms should facilitate the interpretation of experiments such as the fine and hyperfine structure measurements in 2^2S_{\perp} hydrogen [1,5], measurements of electron impact excitation of n=2 states in helium [6], time-of-flight studies of repulsive molecular states [7], and analysis of the kinetic properties of single and multi-component gases [8].

We are indebted to R. A. Heppner, E. S. Fry and W. L. Williams for their assistance and encouragement. The importance of velocity distributions to the measurement of atomic fine structure was emphasized to us by R. T. Robiscoe.

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APPENDIX II

VELOCITY DEPENDENCE OF BEAM ATTENUATION

Consider a monoenergetic beam of atoms (speed v) which passes a distance ℓ through a Maxwellian gas (density n, most probable speed α). If the scattering cross section between an incident particle and a gas particle is σ (here assumed independent of velocity), then the attenuation of the incident beam is velocity dependent (Loeb, 1934). The fraction of particles having speed v which remain in the beam after traveling the distance ℓ is

$$\exp[-n\sigma \ell \psi (\frac{\mathbf{v}}{\alpha})]$$

where

$$\psi(x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\pi x^2}} \{ x \exp[-x^2] + (2x^2 + 1) \int_0^x dy \exp[-y^2] \}$$

The function $\psi(x)$ is tabulated in Table A.II.1 and is plotted in Figure A.II.1.

×	ψ(x)
0.05	22.586
0.1	11.321
0.2	5.717
0.3	3.873
0.4	2.969
0.5	2.440
0.6	2.099
0.7	1.863
0.8	1.694
0.9	1.568
1.0	1.472
1.25	1.313
1.5	1.220
1.75	1.163
2.0	1.125
2.5	1.080
3.0	1.056
	ı

Table A.II.l Attenuation Function $\psi\left(x\right)\ vs.\ x.$

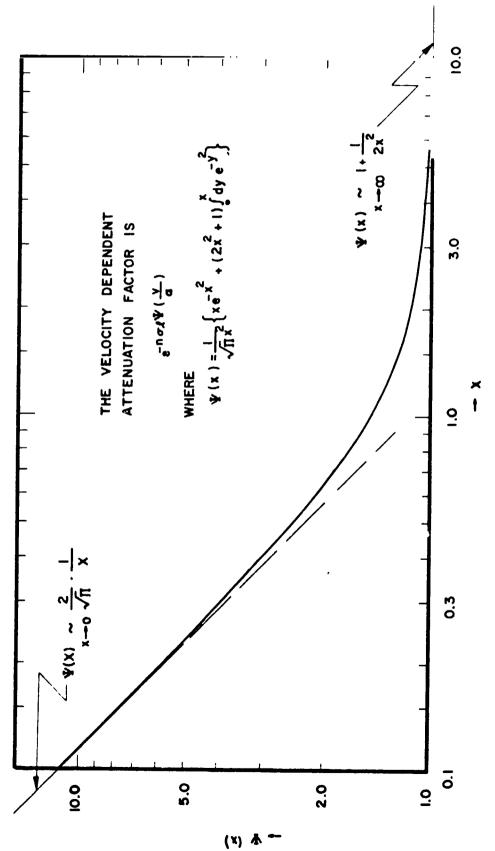


Figure A. II.1 Attenuation Function ψ (x) vs. x

APPENDIX III

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Residual Gas Analysis and Leak Detection by Time of-Flight Measurements on Neutral Metastable Atoms and Molecules*

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We have designed and built a residual gas analyzer which is sensitive to N2, He, A. Ne, and other molecules which have energetic metastable states. The presence of these gases is revealed by measuring the time of flight of metastable, electrically neutral molecules between a pulsed electron gun and an Auger surface detector. When used as a residual gas analyzer, the present instrument can detect partial pressures of 10-7 Torr or greater; when used as a leak detector with helium tracer gas, the instrument can detect leak rates of 10-5 Torr liters/sec or larger. The sensitivity of the present instrument can be markedly improved with obvious refinements. The metastable time-of-flight analyzer will operate in a 10-4 Torr environment and it has other advantages which may make it a valuable complement to the more conventional methods of leak detection and residual gas analysis.

Introduction

The composition of residual gases in vacuum systems is usually measured by mass spectrometer techniques in which molecules are ionized and then identified by their characteristic charge-to-mass ratio. In this paper, an analyzer is described in which the abundance of certain common gases (H, H₂, He, N₂, CO, A, Ne, and others) is determined by measuring the time of flight of metastable molecules between an excitation region and an Auger surface detector.1 Compared with the conventional mass spectrometers, the metastable timeof-flight (MTOF) analyzer has the advantages of light weight and ruggedness. The time-of-flight instrum.

can also be used as a leak detector in several different

The principles of the MTOF analyzer are most easily described by referring to Fig. 1. The molecules within the system are moving in random directions with a Maxwellian distribution of velocities characteristic of the apparatus temperature; further, the pressure is low enough (<10-4 Torr) so that the mean free path of gas molecules is at least on the order of the distance between the electron gun and the metastable detector. A short ($\sim 10 \mu \text{ sec}$) burst of current is passed through the electron gun and a small fraction of the gas wolecules which happen to be in the bomhardment region are excited and/or ionized. The ions and electrons are confined by the magnetic field of the electron gun assembly. Most of the excited molecules decay rapidly by emitting radiation, however, many neutral species have metastable excited states and these metastables, along with all the neutral, ground state molecules, will leave the bombardment region with about the same gas kinetic velocity with which they entered. The metastable atoms or molecules can be observed as they arrive at a distant detector several

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Participant.

¹ Metastable time-of-fligh, methods have been used previously to study molecular beams effusing from directed sources. See, for example: J. B. French and J. W. Locke in Rarefied Gas Dynamics, C. L. Brundin, Ed. (Academic Press Inc., New York, 1967), p. 1461. R. Freund and W. Klemperer, J. Chem. Phys. 47, 2897 (1967), J. C. Pearl, D. P. Donnelly, and J. C. Zorn, International Conference on Atomic Physics Abstracts, V. W. Cohen and G. su Putlits, Eds. (New York University, June 1968), p. 145 June 1968), p. 145.

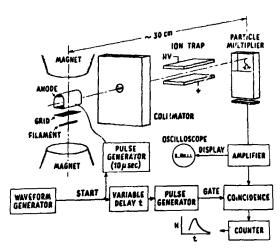


FIGURE 1. Functional block diagram of metastable, time-of-flight analyzer.

hundred microseconds after the end of the electron gun pulse.

Molecules of markedly different mass can be distinguished because their times of flight are proportional to the square root of their masses. Species of comparable mass can often be distinguished by their metastable state energies if the electron energy in the pulsed exciter is well controlled.

I. Apparatus

A. Vacuum System and Gas Control

The experiments described here were done in a brass vacuum envelope, 30 liters in volume, which is maintained at about 1×10^{-7} Torr by a 750-liter/sec oil diffusion pump and a liquid-nitrogen trap. All gaskets are neoprene O-rings.

A fine-control needle valve (Nupro type 2SA) is used to admit gases into the vacuum system. For the measurements described here, the system is maintained at a total pressure between 5×10^{-7} and 5×10^{-4} Torr. For tests of the analyzer's sensitivity to known flow rates of helium, a helium permeation leak (General Electric type #22 HL 020) is used. The conductivity of the leak can be adjusted from zero to 10^{-4} Torr liters, see by adjusting the leak temperature.

B. Electron Gun

The electron gun provides a current of about 5 mA at an electron energy of 35 eV with an energy resolution of about 2 eV. The directly heated cathode is a 0.003 cm \times 0.2 cm tungsten ribbon about 1.5 cm long. The anode potential of the gun is pulsed; a Tektronix model 162 pulse generator is a convenient source for supplying $10-\mu$ sec, 35-V pulses at a rate of 400/sec.

A small permanent magnet (about 800 G) helps to maintain adequate current density within the electron gun.

C. Detector

Metastable species, such as He $(2^{3}S_{1} \text{ or } 2^{1}S_{0})$, Ar $({}^{3}P_{2} \text{ or } {}^{3}P_{0})$, and $N_{2}(a^{1}\pi_{g} \text{ or } A^{3} \Sigma_{u}^{+})$, which have excitation energies in excess of a few electron volts can be detected by the Auger ejection of electrons² which occurs when the metastables strike a surface. We have found it convenient to use the cathode of a windowless electron multiplier3 as the Auger surface for our detector: An output pulse from the multiplier then signals the arrival of a metastable atom or molecule. The efficiency of detection is not known, but we estimate that 20% of the metastable helium atoms incident on the multiplier cathode result in an output pulse; the efficiency of the Auger detector for other metastable species is under study. Our experience suggests that the detection efficiency for metastable molecules does not change appreciably even though the Auger detector has often been exposed to air and to backstreaming from unbaffled vacuum pumps.

A pair of metal plates 3 cm long is used to apply an electric field of 100 V/cm transverse to the direction of the metastable beam. This electrostatic trap keeps ions out of the detector and gives a marked improvement in the signal-to-noise ratio at the output of the multiplier.

D. Electronics

The timing and pulse generating requirements of this experiment are met by a Tektronix model 160 waveform generator. The master timer triggers a circuit which supplies the pulse to the anode of the electron gun. A second circuit provides a delayed, $10-\mu$ sec wide pulse to a gate circuit; the gate pulse may be adjusted to occur anytime from zero to $2000~\mu$ sec after the electron gun pulse. The signal pulses from the electron multiplier are amplified and fed to the gate circuit; those signal pulses which arrive during the $10-\mu$ sec open time of the gate are registered on a Hewlett-Packard model 5245 electronic counter.

A multichannel analyzer is now being used to process data from measurements following the ones described here. By using this analyzer in a time-of-flight mode, the entire velocity spectrum can be scanned every time the electron gun is pulsed.

An upper limit to the repetition rate is set by the requirement that molecules excited by the (n-1)th pulse of the electron gun should not affect measurements done during the *n*th cycle of the apparatus; a rate of 400 Hz is convenient in the present experiment.

II. Results

Figure 2 shows the results found when the system has a 5×10^{-7} Torr partial pressure of helium and a

² M. Kaminsky, Atomic and Ionic Impact Phenomena on Metal Surfaces (Academic Press Inc., New York, 1965), p. 292. ³ G. W. Goodrich and W. C. Wiley, Rev. Sci. Instr. 32, 846 (1961).

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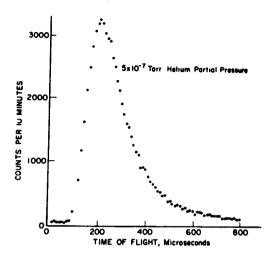


FIGURE 2. Time-of-flight spectrum seen with helium partial pressure of 5 \times 10⁻⁷ Torr. Total pressure of other detectable species is below 2 \times 10⁻⁷ Torr.

total pressure of other gases less than 1×10^{-7} Torr. The time-of-flight spectrum has the shape that would be expected from a Maxwellian gas at 300°K. Much smaller partial pressures of helium are detectable; in fact, when the present instrument is used as a leak detector with helium tracer gas, leak rates of 10^{-2} μ liters/sec or larger are easily seen. Obvious refinements should improve this sensitivity.

Figure 3 shows the time-of-flight spectrum obtained when helium, argon, and xenon are all present in the vacuum system. The present instrument can detect partial pressures down to 10⁻⁷ Torr of those molecules which have energetic metastable states, but we see from the figure that resolution of the heavier species would require additions to the basic time-of-flight method. For example, one possibility would be to correlate the output of the metastable molecule detector with the electron energies in the pulsed exciter.

III. Discussion: Residual Gas Analysis and Leak Detection

Although the cross sections for excitation of the metastable states are on the same order as those for electron impact ionization, the intermittent operation of the electron gun and the lack of spatial focusing put the metastable time-of-flight (MTOF) analyzer at a disadvantage when compared to the usual mass spectrometer. On the other hand, both source and detector in the MTOF system can be very large, so the sensitivity of the present analyzer could probably be much improved.

The MTOF instrument is remarkably resistant to

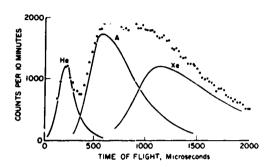


Figure 3. Time-of-flight spectrum for a mixture of noble gases: 1×10^{-7} Torr of helium, 1×10^{-7} Torr of argon, and 5×10^{-6} Torr of xenon. The dots show the result from the gas mixture; the solid lines represent what would be found from each of the rate gases separately.

mistreatment. The electron gun cathode is of pure tungsten and requires no special activation; the cathode alignment is not critical so replacement is easy if the filament burns out. The magnetic strip electron multiplier can be exposed to atmosphere for extended periods and still perform effectively; the sensitivity of the instrument does not depend critically on the stability of gain in the multiplier or in amplifier circuits because the pulses are counted; moreover the Auger surfaces do not seem to change their efficiency for Helium metastables even after much mistreatment.

The MTOF instrument will operate under very poor vacuum conditions (anything less than 1×10^{-4} Torr is fine; the limit is set by the high-voltage breakdown of the electron multiplier and by the mean free path for the metastables which are to be detected).

The simplicity of the MTOF analyzer makes it feasible to construct its vacuum-housed components as a single unit and leave this attached to the evacuated system. In this way, one set of TOF electronics could serve many installations. Of course, the MTOF analyzer could have its own vacuum pumps and be coupled to the system under test with a throttle valve.

The sensitivity of the MTOF residual gas analyzer to both helium and nitrogen is of particular utility for the detection of leaks in a vacuum system: A high N₂ signal indicates the presence of a leak which can then be pinpointed by using helium as a tracer gas. When the helium actually plays on the leak, the N₂ signal will decrease and the peak of the time-of-flight spectrum will shift to the helium position; if nitrogen and helium signals persist together, it is an indication that still another leak, away from the tracer gas source, exists in the system.

Acknowledgments

We are indebted to Denis P. Donnelly and John C. Pearl for their contributions to this research.

⁴D. R. Bates, Ed., Atomic and Molecular Processes (Academic Press Inc., New York, 1965).

APPENDIX IV

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Detection of Metastable Atoms and Molecules with Continuous Channel Electron Multipliers*

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BEAMS of metastable molecules can be rapidly and efficiently detected by allowing them to strike the cathode of a windowless electron multiplier. In this note we report on the use of a continuous channel electron multiplier (Bendix "Channeltron") in this application. Compared to other multipliers, the continuous channel multiplier has the advantages of lower noise, simpler circuitry, and far smaller size for a given cathode area.

We have detected thermal beams of metastable helium, hydrogen, neon, argon, krypton, xenon, and molecular nitrogen in our experiments. Although we have not measured the yield of Auger electrons per metastable incident on the multiplier cathode, we judge that the yield is comparable to that achieved² on the tungsten or platinum surfaces used in the conventional Auger detectors. The detection efficiency for a given metastable species seems to remain within 10% or so of an equilibrium value in spite of the frequent exposure of the multiplier to humid air and backstreaming pump vapors.

The usual background signal, or dark current, in the Channeltron multiplier is 0.1 counts/sec or less, so it is feasible to do experiments with beam signals as low as 1 count/sec. To maintain a low background count rate it is essential to keep uv radiation (as from bare filaments) and ions (as from vacuum gauge tubes) out of the multiplier. Windows in the vacuum system need not be covered during the experiments, however, since the multiplier does not respond to visible light.

The arrangement shown in Fig. 1 is a simple, effective way to couple the output of the Channeltron to a remote pulse height analyzer.

Sometimes the Channeltrons will develop erratic gain or a very high noise level. This can come from mistreatment such as overloading due to high counting rates or from causes which are less obvious. We have usually found it possible to restore a multiplier to good operating condition by flushing it with acetone or ethyl alcohol and letting it rest on the shelf for a few days. In fact, one of

our Channeltrons has been resuscitated in this manner after it had failed from a corona discharge that occurred when the system vacuum was lost with 2.5 kV still applied to the multiplier. A noisy or inoperative multiplier should not be that the before a few of these "home remedies" have been tried.

The continuous channel multipliers are made of glass tubing which can be broken if too much strain is exerted by the mount; once the multiplier is in place, however,

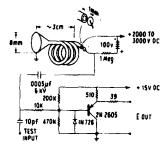


Fig. 1. The Channeltron output is picked up by a small metal button and fed to the input of an emitter follower which is mounted together with the multiplier inside the vacuum chamber. The circuit serves as an impedance transformer so that the signal pulses can be brought out through long, low impedance leads.

the assembly of multiplier plus amplifier on a single board is not overly delicate. It is useful to know that pieces of a broken Channeltron can sometimes still be used for electron multiplication, albeit with lower gain, if new electrical connections for the dc voltage are made to the resistive glass tube with conducting paint.

We are grateful to John Carrico, Christopher Tosswill, Charles Hendee, Barry Kletke, and James Svenson of the Bendix Research Laboratories for the loan of several Channeltron multipliers and for suggestions concerning their use. We thank David Crosby for his contributions to this research.

 Work supported in part by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

¹ M. Kaminsky, Atomic and Ionic Impact Phenomena on Metal Surfaces (Azademic Press Inc., New York, 1965), pp. 292 ff. ¹G. W. Goodrich and W. C. Wiley, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 33, 761 (1962); D. S. Evans, ibid. 36, 375 (1965).

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